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ABSTRACT

Phase 1 of a two-phase study conducted by the Urban Associates, Inc. for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to determine the barriers to culturally-relevant delivery of its services to three ethnic minorities (namely, American Indians, persons of Spanish origin, and Asian Americans) found a scarcity of data on the numbers and characteristics of these ethnic minority consumers, their needs, and other key indicators indispensible for effective HEW planning. This volume, along with two others on American Indians and persons of Spanish origin compose one aspect examined by Phase II of the study. It focuses on generating specific national and local data on selected socio-economic characteristics of five Asian American sub-groups from the 1970 census. Characteristics examined for Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino sub-groups include recent immigration, population, family, education, employment, income, poverty, and sources of income. Sections on Korean Americans and Hawaiians provide separate analyses of these populations in addition to the characteristics already mentioned. Data for each major Asian group is summarized in tables, while highlights of the study are presented in summary form. An Asian American glossary and sources on Asian Americans are provided. (AM)

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A STUDY OF SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ETHNIC MINORITIES BASED ON THE 1970 CENSUS

Volume II: Asian Americans

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ERRATA SHEET

Pg. viii, paragraph 6, for ". . . for any group in the U.S."
substitute ". . . for any male group in the U.S."

Pg. x, paragraph 6, for ". . . (48%) is in Chinese. . ."
substitute ". . . (48%) in Chinese. . . "

Pg. xi, paragraph 1, for ". . . are far lower."
substitute ". . . are far lower than the median incomes of all foreign born Chinese families."

Pg. xii, paragraph 2, for ". . . groups to immigrate groups."
substitute ". . . groups to immigrate."

Pg. xii, footnote 1, for "Pilippine Islands."
substitute "Philippine Islands."

Pg. xiii, paragraph 4, for "the first generation immigrant generation."
substitute "the first generation immigrant."

Pg. 5, footnote 2, for "for more than two years. . ."
substitute "for more than two generations. . . "

Pg. 10, paragraph 3, for "additiional" substitute "additional".

Pg. 12, footnote, for "e.g. Hawaii, Western Samoa. . . "
substitute "e.g. Western Samoa. . . "

Pg. 52, footnote 2, for ". . . marry Japanese, Chinese, Mexican Americans, or Blacks." substitute ". . . marry persons of non-white races."

Pg. 64, footnote * for "Ilacano" substitute "Ilocano".

Pg. 72, paragraph 5, for ". . . the highest proportion for any ethnic group in the U.S." substitute ". . . the highest proportion for males in any ethnic group in the U.S."

Pg. 138, paragraph 4, for "While the 1,800 males represent. . . "
substitute "While the 1,700 males represent. . . "

Pg. 151, paragraph 2, for ". . . the ethnicity race. . . "
substitute ". . . the ethnicity/race. . . "

July, 1974

A STUDY OF SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ETHNIC MINORITIES BASED ON THE 1970 CENSUS

Volume II: Asian Americans

Prepared for: Department of Health, Education and Welfare
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Principals of URBAN ASSOCIATES are now operating as RJ ASSOCIATES

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HIGHLIGHTS

The highlights of our study of the Socio-Economic Characteristics of Asian Americans based upon the 1970 Census are presented below. The full text of the report, including substantiating data follows. The highlights are organized according to the primary subgroups in the Asian American population, for which data were available: Japanese, Chinese, Pilipinos, Koreans, and Hawaiians.

Japanese Highlights

Immigration and Population

- The Japanese are the largest Asian American subgroup with a 1970 population of 591,000 persons. 72% of all Japanese Americans live in Hawaii and California.

- Between 1960 and 1970, the Japanese population in the United States increased by 27%. Since 1970, the rate of Japanese immigration to the United States has remained low, averaging 5,000 persons per year. About two-thirds of the additional persons added to the population since 1960 were attributable to births while the remaining third were new immigrants.

- There has been a shift of the Japanese population from one that is predominantly male to one that is predominantly female and the gap is widening. Two factors are involved: first there is a higher percentage of Japanese female immigrants and secondly women tend to outlive men. Males are now only 46% of the Japanese population, and among the elderly, only 43%.

- Japanese have a smaller percentage of young people under 18 in their population than does the U.S. population as a whole (29% compared to 34%). Part of this may be due to a lower birth rate among Japanese. Another factor is a relatively high intermarriage rate between Japanese and non-Japanese. The children and grandchildren of these parents may no longer be enumerated as Japanese by the Census.

- The percentage of all Japanese adults who are elderly (11% of persons 18 and over) is lower than the U.S. average (15%). In rural areas, the concentration of elderly Japanese is higher (16% of persons 18 and over).

- Of the Japanese in Hawaii, only 10% are foreign born. In California, 21% are foreign born while outside Hawaii and California 36% of the Japanese population are foreign born.

- Among all immigrants who came to the United States prior to 1925, 91% have become U.S. citizens. But only 46% of all Japanese who immigrated this early have become citizens.

Victims of laws which were in effect throughout most of the first half of the century prohibiting the granting of citizenship to Asians, these persons continue to be at a disadvantage due to their non-citizenship status.

Family Characteristics

- 86% of Japanese families have both husband and wife, the same rate as that of the country as a whole. Of such families, the percentage with children under 18 (61%) is higher than in the country as a whole (56%) while the percentage with children under six (27%) is just at the national rate, suggesting perhaps a lower birth rate among younger Japanese.

- One-third of all married Japanese women have married outside of their ethnic group. 43% of the women 25-44 years old and 46% of the women 16-24 years old are married to non-Japanese. Many of these women are post-World War II Japanese wives of former American servicemen.

- Among Japanese primary individuals (persons who live alone) the ratio of males to females is almost equal. Two-thirds of all elderly Japanese primary individuals, however, are women. As in the total population, many Japanese women who have outlived their husbands are left on their own in their old age.

- Japanese families are slightly larger than families in the total U.S. population. The average white family in the United States contains 3.5 persons while the average Japanese family contains 3.7 persons. The fact that the Japanese family tends to be larger than average U.S. families is due to extended family relationships, the presence of adult relatives such as grandparents, aunts and uncles, etc. While 12% of all families are extended families, among the Japanese, 16% are.

Educational Characteristics

- In 1970, 62% of all Japanese in the United States had a mother tongue of Japanese. Over a quarter of those who had resided in the United States for three or more generations still had a Mother Tongue of Japanese.

- Of all Japanese males 16 and above, 70% have finished high school and 19% have completed college--figures well above the U.S. averages of 54% and 13% respectively.

- As with the men, the percentage of Japanese women who have completed high school (67%) is greater than the U.S. female norm (55%). The difference between the Japanese and the total population is not as great for women as for men. The percentage of Japanese women who have completed college (11%) is greater than the percentage of all women in the U.S. (8%). The percentage, however, is lower than the percentage among women in the other Asian subgroups.

- The educational attainment of the elderly Japanese is much lower. Japanese males 65 years old and over have had a median of 8.5 years of education and elderly Japanese females have had 7.9 years.

- Over 30% of Japanese children, 3-4 years old are in some type of preschool program. This is more than double the participation rate for the U.S. (14%). Among the factors creating this higher enrollment rate is the very high labor force participation rate of Japanese women (nearly 50%).

- The college enrollment for young Japanese adults 18-24 years old (56% of males and 48% of females enrolled) is higher than for any other group except for the Chinese.

Employment Characteristics

- Over the decade the proportion of Japanese women in the labor force increased from 44% to nearly 50%. The biggest change occurred in the proportion of married women in the work force. In 1960, only 12% of all Japanese wives were working while in 1970 51% were.

- The labor force participation rate of Japanese men (79%) is 2% higher than the rate for males in the total population (77%).

- Considerable differences exist between occupational distribution of Japanese born in the United States and those born in Japan. 45% of all employed foreign-born Japanese men are in the so-called upper status white-collar occupations as professionals and managerial workers. Less than a third of the U.S.-born Japanese men are in these occupations however. On the other hand, fully a third of all U.S.-born men are in skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar jobs while only 13% of the foreign-born Japanese males are so employed.

- 68% of all U.S.-born Japanese women are in white-collar occupations chiefly as clerical workers; on the other hand, 68% of the foreign-born women are in blue-collar jobs.

- While most of the foreign-born Japanese males immigrated as professionals or as students, sizeable proportions of the foreign-born Japanese females are elderly or war brides. Hence the distribution of jobs of foreign-born males and foreign-born females differs sharply.

- There is clear evidence that many members of the Japanese population in the United States are underemployed. The proportion working in higher status white-collar jobs has not kept up with the proportion who are college educated. The gap is greatest among Japanese of foreign birth. There are only 0.9 foreign-born Japanese men in the higher status jobs for every one who is college educated while there are 1.5 men in the total U.S. population employed in the higher status jobs for every college educated male.

- About 5% of all Japanese males are employed on farms, the same percentage as for men in the total population. Among the employed elderly, however, 15% are on farms. Another 22% of these elderly Japanese males are working as non-farm laborers.

Income

- Almost a third (30%) of Japanese men, 16 and over, earn less than $4,000 a year (almost the same as the national rate 31%) while another third (33%) of the Japanese males earn over $10,000 a year. Although one-third are among the middle and upper income groups, one-third are also among the low income groups in the U.S. society.

- Only 51% of all U.S. families have more than one earner. In over half of all Japanese families, both husbands and wives work, compared to only 39% of the husbands and wives in the total population. Another factor is that over a third of all Japanese live in Hawaii where the cost of living is at least 25% higher than the rest of the U.S.

- 58% of all employed Japanese women are earning less than $4,000 a year. This percentage is smaller than the proportion of women in the total population (68%) who earn as little but far higher than the proportion found among men in any ethnic group.

- Except in Hawaii, the income levels of Japanese families with a female head are similarly low. Only 18% of such families in Hawaii, but nearly a third (31%) of such families in California, and a very high 47% of such families in areas outside of Hawaii and California survive on less than $4,000 a year.

Poverty Characteristics & Sources of Income

- 20% of all Japanese families are receiving Social Security which is the same proportion as the rest of the population. The average amount of Social Security income that Japanese families are receiving is lower than the average amount received by families in the total population however.

- There is an average of 2.1 families in poverty for every one family receiving public assistance in the United States; the ratio for Japanese families is 2.2 to one. The ratio is most imbalanced in states outside Hawaii and California where there are 3.8 Japanese families with incomes below poverty for every one family on welfare.

- Nationally, the rate of poverty among Japanese families (6%) is lower than the U.S. average (11%). Of all Japanese families outside of Hawaii and California, however, the rate of poverty is up to 11%--equal to the U.S. average. Of all foreign-born Japanese families, 17% had incomes under the poverty level in 1970. Of all Japanese families in poverty, two-fifths are female headed.

- A fifth of all Japanese 65 years old and over are poor. Over half (58%) of them live alone. Among Japanese, a majority of the elderly poor who live alone are women, many of whom have been widowed.

Chinese Highlights

Immigration and Population

- The Chinese are the second largest Asian American subgroup with a 1970 population reported by Census at 435,000 persons. Over half of the Chinese population live in the western states; 39% in California alone with another 12% in Hawaii. Additionally 27% of all Chinese live in the Northeast--with almost 20% in the State of New York.

- During the decade between 1960 and 1970, the Chinese population in the United States increased by 84%. At least two-thirds of the additional people added to the population are new immigrants. Chinese immigration to the U.S. has averaged 19,000 persons per year in the last 6 years.

- Few of the recent Chinese immigrants have settled in Hawaii, where only 11% of the Chinese population are foreign born. High proportions of recent immigrants are concentrated in cities in California and New York; 52% of the Chinese in San Francisco, 54% of the Chinese in Los Angeles, and 67% of the Chinese in New York City are foreign born.

- The Chinese population has been historically an urban one, and the proportion of their population living in urban areas (97%) has not changed over the past 10 years.

- Since the beginning of the century, the Chinese population in the United States has been predominantly male. Over the past decade, the differential between males and females, however, has decreased (from 14% to 6%). Among the elderly, males are still 57% of the population and females only 43% of the population.

- In 1970, the percent of Chinese under 18 was 32%, just under the U.S. average of 34%. Because the influx of new immigrants has not brought with it large numbers of elderly, the percent of elderly among the Chinese (9% of the 18 and over population) is lower than the U.S. total (15%).

Family Characteristics

- Of all the ethnic subgroups, the Chinese have the highest proportion of husband/wife families (89%).

- Of all Chinese husband/wife families, 66% have children under 18 (56% for the total U.S.) and 33% have children under 6 (27% for the U.S.). One reason for the higher percentage of families with children is the recent influx of young Chinese families of child-bearing age.

- The overall rate of marriage by Chinese to a spouse of the same subgroup is higher than that of other Asian groups. 87% of all Chinese men and 88% of Chinese women have married within their group. However, broken out by age, the data show that intermarriages have increased markedly among the younger Chinese population.

- Chinese families tend to be larger than families in the U.S. in general. While a quarter of all families in the U.S. consist of five or more members, 35% of Chinese families are this large. The average Chinese family contains 4.0 persons compared to 3.5 persons among white families.

- In 1970, 18% of all Chinese families were extended families, 1 1/2 times as great as in the total population. 11% of all Chinese families contain 3 or more generations--4% more than in the U.S. total population.

Educational Characteristics

- The Chinese present a disparate picture of extraordinarily high educational attainments, coupled with a significantly large population of uneducated.

- The percentage of Chinese American men who have not gone beyond elementary school (23%), is slightly lower proportionally than the U.S. average (27%). Fully a quarter of Chinese males, 16 years old or older, have obtained their college degrees--double the U.S. average (13%); the highest proportion for any group in the U.S.

- 28% of Chinese females did not go beyond elementary school--3% greater than in the total U.S. female population.

- The median years of schooling obtained by foreign born elderly Chinese men is 6.2 years and is less than 1 year (0.9 years) for such women, thus emphasizing the high incidence of illiteracy among elderly Chinese.

- 24% of all Chinese children, 3-4 years old are enrolled in some type of preschool program--10% more than in the total U.S. population. The higher rate is an outgrowth of the high labor force participation rate for Chinese women (16 and over),

50% of whom are in the labor force compared to 41% of women in the total population who are.

- The enrollment rates of college-aged Chinese are about double the enrollment rates for college-aged young people in the total population. 71% of Chinese males, 18-24 years old, are enrolled in school while only 37% of males of the same age in the total population are, and 58% of Chinese females, 18-24 years old are enrolled in school while only 27% of females of the same age in the total population are.

- Among Chinese children under 14 years of age 96% of the foreign born and 70% of the second generation speak Chinese in their homes.

Employment Characteristics

- The labor force participation rate of Chinese males 16 years old and over (73%) is 4% below the rate for men in the total population and almost 7% below the rate for men in other Asian groups--reflecting the higher school enrollment rates of young Chinese men.

- With the higher proportion of college educated men in the population, professional occupations are the largest category of employment (29%) for Chinese men.

- Another 11% of employed Chinese males are managerial workers, the same proportion as in the total U.S. population. Those Chinese who are managers, however, are largely self-employed owners and proprietors of small retail stores and restaurants.

- Nearly a quarter (24%) of all Chinese men are employed as service workers, many of them in Chinese restaurants and laundries. The proportion is 3 times the proportion in the total U.S. male population.

- Between 1960 and 1970, the labor force participation rate of Chinese women increased from 44% to 50%. The greatest increase occurred in the working patterns of married women. Only 13% of all Chinese wives worked in 1960, but 48% did in 1970. The labor force participation rates of foreign-born and U.S.-born Chinese women are about the same although the occupations that they hold differ markedly.

- Over half of all employed U.S.-born Chinese women are employed as typists, secretaries, sales clerks and other low status white-collar workers. Less than a quarter of employed foreign-born Chinese women are found in these occupations. 37% of the foreign-born Chinese women are working in factory-related blue-collar jobs (most of them as semi-skilled operatives). A mere 9% of the U.S.-born Chinese women are employed in such occupations.

- There is evidence that many recent Chinese immigrants who were formerly highly trained professional and managerial workers have been forced to shift to less skilled occupations in the U.S. 46% of all Chinese immigrants who immigrated between 1965 and 1970 and who had been employed in their native countries had been professional, technical, or managerial workers. By 1970, however, only 32% of the employed Chinese immigrating between 1965 and 1970 had found employment as professional, technical and managerial workers--a 14% drop.

Income Characteristics

- Of all Chinese men, 41% earn an annual income of less than $4,000--a much larger percentage of men with low income than the average for the country (31%) reflecting the very serious problem among both older Chinese men and the newly immigrated Chinese men, who are employed in low-paying, low-skilled jobs.

- The proportion of Chinese men earning an income of $10,000 or more, (24%) is just under the proportion for men in the total U.S. population.

- Although the proportion of Chinese males in professional and managerial occupations is higher than for any other population group, income levels of Chinese men are not commensurate.

- About half the wives (48%) is in Chinese husband/wife families are employed, compared to only 39% in the total population. 65% of these and other employed Chinese women earn less than $4,000 a year--close to the proportion for women in the total U.S. population (68%).

- About 60% of all Chinese families have more than one earner, while only 51% of all U.S. families have more than one earner. The impact of these additional Chinese earners is to raise the overall income of a family and to obscure the large percentage of individuals earning very low incomes. As a result, although individual income is below U.S. average, the median Chinese family income in 1970 was $1,000 higher than the U.S. average.

- The median incomes of Chinese families whose heads immigrated to the U.S. before 1925 ($7,426) and after 1965 ($7,372) are far lower. These figures are an indication of the greater economic problems faced by both elderly Chinese and those who are recent immigrants.

Poverty Characteristics and Sources of Income

- Proportionally fewer Chinese American families are receiving Social Security benefits than the rest of the population (14% compared to 20%). Moreover, the average amount of Social Security income that Chinese families receive is lower than that of families in the total population.

- There are 2.8 Chinese families in poverty for every one that is on welfare, compared to only 2.1 families in poverty for every one receiving public assistance in the entire United States. Ratios of families in poverty to families receiving public assistance among Chinese are particularly imbalanced in urban New York State, where there are four families in poverty for every one that is receiving welfare.

- The national rate of poverty among Chinese families (10%) is close to the rate for the total U.S. (11%). In New York City, the rate of poverty for Chinese is much higher (15%).

- Nationally, 28% of all the Chinese elderly are poor. In San Francisco, 31% are poor and in New York City the rate is a very high 40%. Well over half (58%) of the Chinese elderly poor live alone. Most of these persons are males who were consigned to an unmarried, childless status due to immigration patterns.

- A fifth of all Chinese housing in the United States is regarded as overcrowded. The conditions for the Chinese are worse in New York City where a third of all housing units are overcrowded. Additionally, a fifth of all Chinese housing in New York and San Francisco is without adequate plumbing.

Pilipino [1] Highlights

Immigration and Population

- The Pilipinos are the third largest of Asian American subgroups with a 1970 population reported by Census of 343,000 persons. During the decade between 1960 and 1970, the Pilipino population of the United States nearly doubled. Two-thirds of the additional population were new immigrants while the remaining third was due to new births of Pilipinos in the U. S.

- Pilipinos are now the largest of Asian groups immigrating to the United States and the second largest of all national groups to immigrate groups. Since the Census was taken in 1970, an additional 90,000 Pilipinos have immigrated, representing an increase of about 25% over the 1970 figure. If the current rates of Pilipino immigration continue throughout the 70's, Pilipinos will outnumber both Japanese and Chinese in the United States.

- Over two-thirds of the Pilipinos live on the West Coast, 40% in California alone and another 28% in Hawaii. A majority of the older Pilipinos who immigrated earlier in the century and their descendents live in these two states. The more recent immigrants are found in concentrations in urban areas throughout the United States, particularly in the urban areas of California.

- In 1960, 26% of all the Pilipinos in the United States lived in rural areas. By 1970, however, that percentage had shrunk to 14%. 22% of all elderly Pilipinos still live in rural areas.

- In Hawaii, over a third of the Pilipinos (35%) are foreign born. In California, 58% are foreign born while outside California and Hawaii, 63% are.

- In 1960 there were almost two Pilipino males for every Pilipino female in the United States. Since then, more Pilipino women have been immigrating and the ratio of males to females is becoming more equalized. By 1970, the proportion of males in the Pilipino population was only 10% higher than the proportion of females. Among the elderly, however, the imbalance is still very marked. Among Pilipinos 65 years old and over, there are 4.5 times more males than females.

1/ The term "Pilipinos" is used throughout this report in reference to persons whose place of origin is the Pilippine Islands. There is no "f" sound in the Pilipino language and the Pilipino community prefers this spelling and pronunciation.

- Children, 18 and under, comprise 36% of the Pilipino population--slightly above the U.S. average of 34%. In Hawaii, the 18 and under population is up to 42% of the total population, while in the urban areas outside Hawaii and California, the proportion is down to 31% of the total.

- Only 10% of all Pilipinos 18 years old and over are elderly while the proportion for the U.S. is 15%. In areas outside Hawaii and California, young adult immigrants far outnumber the elderly and only 7% of the Pilipino adult population are 65 years old or over. In the rural areas, however, where older Pilipino farm workers have tended to remain, the percentage of all persons over 18 who are elderly is up to the U.S. average level of 15%.

Family Characteristics

- The percentage of Pilipino husband/wife families is the same as that of the U.S. However, the percentage of such families with children under 18 (69%) and under 6 (42%) are far higher than among families in the total population (56% and 27% respectively).

- Pilipino families with a female head are relatively young, as are most Pilipino families. Of the female-headed families, 69% have children under 18 and 39% have children under 6. This high incidence is in large part due to the growing number of young widows who married and bore the children of elderly husbands, the first generation immigrant generation.
- The rate of interracial marriages involving Pilipinos is quite high with 33% of the males and 28% of the females married to a spouse of a different ethnic/racial group. Among the men, the Pilipinos have the highest rate of intermarriage for any Asian group.

- Until immigration laws loosened, there were few Pilipino women in the United States. Many older Pilipino males who did not marry live alone as primary individuals. The largely male primary individual population is particularly visible in Hawaii and the rural U. S. where males living alone outnumber females living alone by nine to one. Most of these persons are middle-aged and elderly; 83% of the Pilipino primary individuals in Hawaii and 90% in rural U.S. are 45 years old and over.

- Of families in the three major Asian subgroups, Pilipino families are largest. 38% of all Pilipino families contain five or more members.

- 23% of all Pilipino families are extended families, nearly twice the proportion for the total U.S. population and a far higher percentage than in either the Japanese or Chinese populations.

Educational Characteristics

- Less than half of all Pilipino men (49%) have completed high school--a rate 5% lower than the rate for men in the total U. S. population.

- Many of the older Pilipino males have had very little formal schooling; the median years of schooling completed by Pilipino males 65 years old and over is only 5.4 years.

- Nationally, the percentage of Pilipino men who have completed college (15%) is slightly above the U.S. average for men (13%) despite the large number of older uneducated males in the population. This results from the impact of the large number of educated Pilipino male professionals who have immigrated to the United States.

- A large proportion of the recently immigrating females are, like the males, educated professionals and they greatly outnumber the few elderly, less educated women in the Pilipino population. In terms of overall statistics the Pilipino female population is much better educated than the Pilipino male population.

- Of the Pilipino women, 64% have completed high school--one of the highest rates of women in any subgroup and far higher than the 49% of Pilipino males who have completed high school. The proportion of Pilipino women with a college education (27%) is the highest for any population groups, male or female.

- Despite the high percentage of educated Pilipinos who have already completed college, younger Pilipinos are not enrolled in school today at a rate that is adequate to continue this high educational achievement.

- The rate of Pilipino 3-4 year old enrollment in school (15%) is at about the U.S. level and is much lower than for the other two Asian subgroups. Yet, the labor force participation rate of Pilipino women is higher than for any other female population group, suggesting that Pilipino 3-4 year olds need more preschool enrollment opportunities.

- The enrollment rates of college-aged Pilipinos 18 to 24 years old is below U.S. averages. Only 28% of Pilipino males and 23% of Pilipino females in that age group are in school, while the U.S. total rates are 37% and 27% respectively for males and females. Pilipino young people, many of whom are second and third generation, are not getting as much advanced education as the rest of the country.

Employment Characteristics

- 79% of all Pilipino males 16 years old and over are in the labor force--2% higher than the participation rate of the total U.S. male population.

- Some 40% of all the employed Pilipino men in the U.S. are working in low-skilled, low-paying jobs, such as laborers (including farm labor) and service workers. This is twice the proportion for men in the total population (19%).

- 12% of the employed Pilipino men are farm workers compared to only 5% of all employed U.S. men who are. In rural areas, 43% of the Pilipino men are farm workers. By far the majority of the farm workers are middle-aged or elderly. In California, 80% of all Pilipino farm workers are 45 years old or over. In Hawaii, 70% of all Pilipinos working on farms are as old.

- Between 1960 and 1970, the labor force participation rate of Pilipino women underwent a phenomenal increase, from 36% to 55%. The participation rate of Pilipino women is now the highest nationally for any group of women. In 1960 only 9% of all married Pilipino women were in the labor force and by 1970 46% were.

- The occupations held by the Pilipino women vary markedly from area to area. In Hawaii 55% of the women are employed as semi-skilled operatives, laborers, or service workers.

- In California 42% are employed as clerical and sales workers while 21% are professionals. In areas outside Hawaii and California, 55% are employed as professionals.

- With the immigration of large numbers of highly trained Pilipinos their numbers in higher level jobs in the United States have increased greatly. The proportion of Pilipino males who are professionals has tripled since 1960. On the other hand, despite the increase of highly skilled persons, the proportion of Pilipinos employed as laborers and in service occupations has remained about the same over the decade.

Income Characteristics

- The income levels of Pilipino men are lower than for men in the total population. Of all Pilipino men, 40% earn less than $4,000 a year (the U.S. average is 31%) and only 12% earn over $10,000 (half the U.S. rate of 25%).

- Income levels of Pilipino men have not kept up with their educational attainments. Of all men 25-34 years old in the U.S., 2.4 earn $10,000 or more for every one that is a college graduate. Among Pilipino men of that age, only 0.9 earn $10,000 or more for every one that is a college graduate.

- More Pilipino women are in the labor force (55%) and their educational attainments are higher (27% are college graduates) than women in any other group. Despite these characteristics, however, the median income levels of Pilipino women are only slightly higher than those of other women. Of all Pilipino women, 56% have an income less than $4,000, a very high percentage of low-income earners.

- The income levels of Pilipino families tend to be lower than for Chinese and Japanese families and at about the level of the U.S. average. The level should be higher, however, because 61% of all Pilipino families have more than one earner, compared to only 51% of all U.S. families, and 46% of all Pilipino wives in husband/wife families work, compared to only 39% of all U.S. wives who do.

- 46% of Pilipino female-headed families have incomes less than $4,000. The Pilipino female head is relatively young and thus is less likely to have grown children who could help support her family. Indeed, 39% of the Pilipino female heads have young children under 6. For these women, child care may be an additional income drain.

Poverty Characteristics and Sources of Income

- Pilipino families in the U.S. are receiving Social Security at a rate far lower than that of families in the total population (14% compared to 20%) and the amount they receive is less. Elderly Pilipino household heads in both San Francisco and Los Angeles are receiving Social Security benefits at rates below the total population in those cities. This situation is duplicated throughout the country.

- Pilipino families nationally are receiving welfare at a ratio equal to the U.S. national level (2.1 families in poverty for every one receiving public assistance). In selected local areas, however, there is a serious imbalance. In urban areas outside Hawaii and California, there are 3.5 families in poverty to every one on welfare. In San Francisco, while 31% of all poverty families are on welfare, only 19% of Pilipino families in poverty are.

- 25% of all Pilipino elderly are poor. 63% of the Pilipino elderly who are poor live alone; most are men.

- 28% of all Pilipino households in the United States live in overcrowded conditions, but 40% of all Pilipino families in Honolulu and 30% in San Francisco live under such substandard conditions.

(The brevity of the following sections on the Koreans and Hawaiians reflects the little data available from Census on these two groups.)

Korean American Highlights

Immigration and Population

- The 1970 Census represents the first time that Koreans were enumerated as a distinct ethnic group. In that year, 70,000 were reported, making them the fifth largest Asian subgroup in the United States (the Hawaiians being the fourth largest).

- Currently, Koreans are the second largest Asian group immigrating into the United States. Since the 1970 Census was taken another 56,100 Koreans immigrated to the U.S. representing an 80% increase over the 1970 population. By 1980, the Korean population is likely to have passed the Hawaiian.

- The Koreans in the U.S. are a more dispersed population than other Asians. In 1970, 44% of all Koreans lived in the West, 20% in the Northeast, 19% in the Midwest, and 17% in the South.

- Among Koreans immigrating between 1965 and 1973, less than a third went to states in the West. The remaining immigrants have settled in equal distribution in all the other regions of the country--a pattern unlike that of the other Asian immigrant populations.

Family Characteristics

- The proportion of Korean families in the U.S. headed by females (15%) is higher than the proportion nationally (11%).

- The proportion of these female-headed families with children is also high. A quarter of the female-headed families in Honolulu, Los Angeles, and New York have children under six; outside these three cities, 47% of the female-headed families do.

- A great many of the Korean children in the U.S. were born in Korea. Over a third (36%) of all Koreans immigrating since 1970 were under 20 years of age when they arrived; most of them were under 10.

Educational Characteristics

- In the country as a whole, 55% of all adults have completed high school. Among Koreans, 71% have (over 80% in Los Angeles and New York). Nationally, over one-third of their population (36%) have a college education, more than triple the proportion in the country as a whole (11%).

- English Language facility is a major problem for all Koreans, hampering the ability of the adults to obtain a job commensurate with their education as well as the performance of children in school. In 1970, 58% of the native-born Koreans and 91% of the foreign-born Koreans listed Korean as their mother tongue.

Employment Characteristics

- The labor force participation rate of Koreans, nationally, is close to the level for the total population. 76% of all Korean men are in the labor force compared to 77% of all U.S. men who are. 42% of Korean women are in the labor force compared to 41% of all women in the country. (This participation rate of Korean women is much lower, however, than comparable levels for women in other Asian subgroups.)

- About three-fourths (72%) of those Koreans who reported an occupation when they immigrated to the country indicated highly skilled backgrounds in professional, technical and managerial occupations. Data from Census on the jobs Koreans obtained <u>after</u> they entered the U.S. are lacking, however.

Income Characteristics

- In 1970, the income levels of Korean males and females were close to national levels. However, proportionate to the number of college graduates in their population the income of Korean workers lags behind that of the rest of the population.

Hawaiian Highlights

- In 1970, there were nearly 100,000 Hawaiians in the United States, 72,000 in the State of Hawaii itself, 14,000 in California and another 13,000 elsewhere.

- Two-thirds of the Hawaiians in the State of Hawaii live in the greater Honolulu area, and almost all of them were born in that state. Three-quarters of Hawaiians now living in California, on the other hand, were born in Hawaii.

- The birth rate of Hawaiians is higher than for most Asian populations in America--an average 4.5 children per woman 35-44. Because of this high birth rate, the proportion of young people in the Hawaiian population is also high. Of their population nationally, 42% are under 18 (45% in Hawaii).

- About 40% of Hawaiian men and women are married to non-Hawaiians.

- The percentage of persons 65 and over in the population 18 years of age and over (7%) is less than half the proportion in the overall U.S. population (15%). Since Hawaiians are unaffected by immigration, this lower percentage of elderly among Hawaiian adults indicates a shorter life span.

Education Characteristics

- The educational attainment of Hawaiians indicates comparability to the levels reached by the total U. S. population. A breakdown by state shows that the Hawaiians in California are doing somewhat better, and the Hawaiians in Hawaii are doing somewhat worse; presumably the educational level influences the likelihood of Hawaiians migrating to the mainland.

- The rate of college enrollment by Hawaiian 18 to 24 year-olds is lower than the rate for the country as a whole. One-third of all 18-24 year olds in the U.S. are enrolled in school, but less than one-quarter of the Hawaiians are.

Employment Characteristics

- The rate of labor force participation by Hawaiian males in Hawaii (76%) is just about at the rate for all males in the country (77%) and, for women, higher than all women (48% compared to 41%). In California, rates of labor force participation by Hawaiians are higher still: 84% for males and 51% for females.

Income Characteristics

- Comparisons of incomes between persons living in Hawaii and persons living elsewhere in the United States cannot be made without taking into consideration the fact that the cost of living on the Islands is about 25% higher than elsewhere. Since 72% of all Hawaiians live in Hawaii, better comparisons may be made, therefore, between the Hawaiians and other ethnic populations in that state.

- The median income for Hawaiian men in Hawaii ($6,485) is lower than for Japanese or Chinese men in Hawaii, but higher than for Pilipino men in that state. Median income for Hawaiian women repeats the same pattern. But at $2,931, this income is very low considering the high cost of living for those in Hawaii.

PREFACE

This report is one of a series being developed by Urban Associates, Inc. (UAI), under Contract No. HEW OS-72-209 with the Office of Special Concerns, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Office of the Secretary, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The basic purpose of the contract was to conduct a two-phase, comprehensive study of major barriers to culturally-relevant delivery of DHEW services to three major ethnic minority groups in America today: persons of Spanish Origin, Asian Americans, and American Indians. Under Phase I of the contract, UAI undertook to:

- Survey the parameters of the problem
- Identify major problem areas
- Make an overall assessment of the degree to which ethnic minorities obtain their fair share of culturally-relevant services
- Identify the major barriers involved

Three major conclusions concerning the ethnic minorities were drawn from the Phase I study:

1. All of the ethnic minority groups have serious deficiencies in the areas of health, education, and welfare; deficiencies which flow from impoverishment, cultural differences or, most often, a combination of both; and they thus have substantial need for the services DHEW is committed to provide for all Americans.

2. Each ethnic group is unique, having a different language (or languages), life style, world view, and differing kinds and degrees of need for various services, such that, for each group separate, individualized, and culturally-sensitive planning and delivery vehicles are necessary if their needs are to be adequately met.

3. Contact with community agencies by the ethnic consultants during Phase I indicated that each of the ethnic communities complained about serious problems in the availability, method of delivery, cultural sensitivity, and presence of ethnic minority staff in DHEW-funded programs at the local level.

Based upon the results of Phase I, the Office of Special Concerns selected a number of issues for in-depth review by Urban Associates in Phase II.

In addition to this analysis of 1970 Census data pertaining to the three ethnic minorities, the other components of the Phase II study are:

- An Evaluation of the Indian Health Service
- A Study of Ethnic Minorities in the Health Occupations
- A Study of the Impact of DHEW Decentralization on the Ethnic Minorities
- A Field Study to determine the extent to which DHEW services are responsive to the needs of the Asian Americans

I. INTRODUCTION

This volume, analyzing selected data from the U.S. Census of 1970 on Asian Americans, represents one of three such volumes on three major ethnic minority groups in America today (the other two groups being American Indians and persons of Spanish Origin). The development of this report stemmed from the finding in Phase I of the contract that there was a considerable absence of data on the numbers and characteristics of ethnic minority consumers, the service needs of ethnic individuals, beneficiary data by ethnic group and other key indicators of the needs of ethnic minorities for services. Such information is indispensable to effective program planning by HEW. Therefore, this study focuses on generating specific data on the characteristics of ethnic minority individuals who are potential consumers of HEW services. Our primary objective was to develop a report which would be useful to the different audiences within HEW, as well as to the state agencies dispensing HEW funds.

In conducting our analysis, we have given special attention to the stereotypes of ethnic minorities held by many persons. The reader will find that most of these stereotypes cannot, in fact, be maintained. We have also endeavored to look beyond the national data on each of the groups, to local data, in order to determine whether characteristics as reflected in national data were also reflected in the data from particular localities. Our study results have shown that national data on the ethnic minorities do frequently obscure, rather than reveal, the varying facts about many of the ethnic minority groups. We have presented our findings with the intention of highlighting these distinctions.

Publications from the U.S. Census Bureau based on tabulations from the 1970 Census provided detailed socio-economic information on the three major Asian American subgroups in

the United States--the Japanese, the Chinese and the Pilipinos.1/ In addition, limited information on two other subgroups--the Koreans and the Hawaiians--is available in selected volumes. 2/

Except where indicated, the source of all data in this volume is the 1970 Census of Population, published by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, specifically the following publications: 3/

General Population Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-B1

General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1

Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1

Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-1A

Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G 4/

Additionally figures on immigration rates of Asians were obtained from the Immigration and Naturalization Service's Annual Reports.

1/ The term "Pilipinos" is used throughout this report in reference to persons whose place of origin is the Philippine Islands. There is no "f" sound in the Pilipino language and the Pilipino community prefers this spelling and pronunciation.

2/ Unfortunately, the U.S. Bureau of the Census does not provide detailed information on the characteristics of all persons of Asian origin as it does on all persons of Spanish origin. Socio-economic data are only available on the above five Asian subgroups.

3/ A detailed list of Census publications, with data on Asian Americans, is contained at the end of this report.

4/ Data on Asians in PC(2)-1G are based on race, while data on Asians in PC(2)-1A are based on persons of foreign parentage by their country of origin.

In terms of completeness and accuracy of data obtained and published, the 1970 Census was much improved over previous counts. Special emphasis was placed on racial/ethnic minority groups, in response to increased interest expressed by government and private agencies, ethnic/racial community organizations, and researchers. For the first time, the U.S. Bureau of the Census launched an extensive program to improve minority coverage, including a pre-Census campaign to contact many of the major minority groups (including the Chinese in New York and San Francisco) and to gain cooperation in the count. For some groups, special brochures and posters were distributed and community educators were employed in the major cities to explain the purpose of the Census and to describe its benefits to citizens in such areas as government program planning and funding. The assistance of many community groups was sought in efforts to locate indigenous persons who could be employed as enumerators and supervisors as well as to help with special problems (as, for example, to contact and assist persons who spoke no English and might have mistakenly thrown away the Census questionnaires they received by mail).

Special procedures and funds were used during the Census enumeration to reduce the "undercount" of ethnic minority groups. Enumerators in some areas were paid more for more difficult tasks, enumeration teams were used and enumerators speaking the native language were used whenever possible.

In 60 locations in the country (principally in metropolitan areas), the Census Bureau, with the cooperation of the U.S. Post Office, used mail-out/mail-back forms based on address registers. This is in contrast to previous Censuses wherein enumerators called personally on each household. In the 1970 Census, such enumerators were used primarily in rural areas and when it was necessary to contact households that did not respond to the initial mail survey.

The Census forms were designed to maximize the count and accuracy of data with respect to ethnic minorities. On a 20% sample nationally (i.e. every fifth person or household) respondents were asked to enumerate themselves by race and ethnic origin.

With all the effort, however, the Census Bureau admits to errors in the 1970 Census. The Bureau estimates that the nonwhite population in the United States has been underenumerated by 6.9% while the white population has been underenumerated by 1.9%. 1/

The Bureau has hypothesized that the groups most subject to undercounting are racial and ethnic minority groups residing predominantly in major urban areas--a description fitting the major Asian American subgroups. The undercounted populations are likely to live in low socio-economic and high density environments. In such areas, households may be missed in address registers. Also, mail delivery tends to be poor, and Census forms probably did not reach all households.

It is in these areas that immigrants are often living under conditions which may or may not be illegal, but which make them reluctant to enumerate themselves. Persons in Asian American communities share with other immigrants a fear of deportation. Since 1970, an average of 17,000 "deportable" aliens of Asian origin have been identified by the Immigration and Naturalization Service each year.

The Asian language speaker (particularly one who is elderly, who has immigrated recently, or who has had little education), may have had difficulty completing the Census forms as a result of lack of fluency in the English language. The Census Bureau has not taken into consideration the diverse languages spoken by Asian Americans in the limited efforts to translate the 1970 Census forms into languages spoken by ethnic minorities in the United States. 2/

One must assume, therefore, that the total number of persons recorded for each Asian minority group is probably low. However, the sample that the Census represents is infinitely larger than that of any other data source. Thus the profile of the characteristics of each group is likely to be more accurate. The emphasis in this report, then, has been placed on the characteristics of the Asian groups as revealed by Census rather than on the actual number of people in each of these groups.

1/ "Estimates of Coverage of the Population by Sex, Race and Age in the 1970 Census" (paper presented at the annual meeting of the Population Association of America, New Orleans, La. April 26, 1973) by Jacob S. Siegel of the U. S. Bureau of the Census.

2/ The only Asian language into which Census Questionnaires and instruction sheets were translated was Chinese and the translated materials were only used in two cities, San Francisco and New York.

One source of under-enumeration arises out of the fact that where the Asian populations are concerned, ethnicity has been identified on the basis of race and not according to origin (whereas the Spanish Speaking population in the United States in 1970 was enumerated on the basis of the latter).

An Asian person's origin was enumerated separately and was based upon a person's birthplace or the birthplace of his parents. 1/ 2/ If only one of the person's parents was foreign born, his origin was classified according to the country of birth of his foreign-born parent. As a result of the two systems of classifications--race and origin--in addition to the total number of persons of Asian race recorded in 1970, the Census identified over 198,000 additional white persons of Asian origin, including 71,000 of Japanese origin, 68,000 of Pilipino origin, 43,000 of Chinese origin, and 16,000 of Korean origin. Unfortunately, for the Asians, only race and not origin has been the basis upon which most data on Asian populations including their total numbers have been tabulated

There is still another source of bias. By the 1970 Census definition, if the race of a person was not clearly defined on the Census enumeration forms, the person would be enumerated by the race of his or her father, and if a person's parents were of different ethnic origins, the origin of the father was assigned. Since 1970, in households where the mother is Spanish Speaking, but the father is not, the Census bureau has reclassified the children as being of Spanish Origin, a change which resulted in a substantial increase in the total number of Spanish Origin persons in the United States. For Asian Americans, a reclassification of children in households with an Asian mother would also have a substantive impact, particularly for the Japanese and Korean populations where at least one-third of all the Asian women have married non-Asian husbands.

The data on Asian Americans are further limited by the fact that it has been over 4 years since the Census was taken--during which time the immigration of several of the Asian subgroups has proceeded at a considerable pace. Since 1970, the Chinese population has increased by 14%, the Pilipino population by 26%, and the Korean population by 80%. The impact of these newest immigrants on each subgroup's total population and the implications in terms of the increasing service needs of the communities have not been fully captured in the data presented in this report.

1/ Does not include persons born abroad of American parents.

2/ Except for the Spanish populations, persons living in the U.S. for more than two years were not identified by their country of origin. The limitation is invalid for Asians who identify ethnically with their country of origin although they have been in the U.S. for several generations.

II. METHODOLOGY AND SELECTION OF LOCAL DATA

This analysis of national and local data on Asian Americans focuses on the basic characteristics generally employed when examining a given population group, characteristics which include population, family structure, education, employment, income, and poverty. The nature of the analysis, by section, is described below:

Section A. Recent Immigration: Discusses the recent immigration trends of the Asian groups studied and the effect this has had on the size of the Asian American population.

Section B. Population Characteristics: Covers general population characteristics including geographic distribution, age distribution, and nativity.

Section C. Family Characteristics: Topics include intermarriage; size of families; family stability; children living with parents, by age and type of family; and female heads of households.

Section D. Education Characteristics: Rates of schooling completed by populations 16 years old and over and the present enrollment rates of children and young adults are discussed. Where the data are available, an analysis is made of the mother tongue of members of the ethnic populations and the language spoken in their homes. This is treated under the section on Education because of its impact on an ethnic group's ability to obtain a good education. Conversely, it is mainly through education that linguistic barriers will be removed.

Section E. Employment Characteristics: This section focuses on labor participation rates, unemployment rates, and distribution of both male and female ethnic minorities in the major occupational classifications.

Section F. Income Characteristics: This section analyzes income ranges for individual males and females, families, and families with female heads.

Section G. Poverty Characteristics and Sources of Income: This section discusses the proportion of families in each ethnic minority group receiving Social Security and Public Assistance, and compares rates of poverty for all persons, for elderly persons, for families, for female-headed families, and for persons living alone (unrelated individuals).

Section H. Korean Americans: This section is a separate analysis of the Korean population in the United States, including the topics listed above in sections A thru G.

Section I. Hawaiians: A separate analysis is also made of the Hawaiian population in the United States, including the topics listed above in sections A thru G.

Accompanying each section is a table summarizing the basic state and local data for each major Asian group. In addition to this major table, supporting charts and other tabular data have been included for the purpose of emphasizing or clarifying special issues. 1/

Most data analyzed in the text appear in either a table or chart within the report. Reference is made to other data contained in the Census publications. Where occasional use has been made of non-Census data, or Census data from sources not previously cited, the source is indicated as a footnote.

All data are examined primarily on the basis of national data for each subgroup. It was not considered necessary under a given topic, to discuss local statistics which mirrored the national data for any particular subgroup. Rather, our intent in analyzing data from selected local areas, was to highlight those situations where local data varied markedly from or were otherwise notable in comparison to the national picture.

Selecting Local Areas of Analysis

The data for the Asian American analysis were selected individually by subgroup. National data on the three major Asian groups--Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipinos--were first analyzed. Then the choice of local data to be examined for each group was decided upon.

1/ Unless they are very small, all percentages used in this report have been rounded to their nearest whole number. Sums of percentages may not equal 100 because of rounding.

Since the Japanese Americans live mostly in Hawaii and California (36% of the Japanese in the United States live in each of these two states, for a total of 72% of all Japanese), a separate analysis of the socio-economic characteristics of the Japanese population in both Hawaii and California was made. For purposes of comparison, data on the Japanese population outside these two states (28% of all Japanese in the U.S.) were also analyzed.

Likewise the Chinese population in Hawaii and California were analyzed apart from the national data. The Chinese in Hawaii are 12% of all Chinese in the U.S., and Chinese in California are 39% of all Chinese in the U.S. Besides the two states, data from two cities, San Francisco and New York, were also included. San Francisco and New York City (with 13% and 16% of the Chinese population, respectively,) are characterized by high percentages of recent immigrant Chinese families living in heavily concentrated ghettos. It became evident that a special look at the populations in these two cities was warranted in order to obtain an accurate picture of all Chinese. And indeed our study has been able to highlight characteristics peculiar to the Chinese populations in these two cities that are not apparent when analyzing data on the Chinese nationally and by entire states.

No attempt has been made to analyze the data on the 33% of Chinese living outside of California, Hawaii, or New York City, since the profile of that total population is largely reflected by the national data on Chinese.

An initial examination of the Pilipino population of the United States revealed that the two basic waves of immigration resulted in subgroups that could be characterized quite differently: older immigrants, mostly men now in their 60's and up, some of them rural residents; and newer immigrants, younger and better educated men and women, who have settled largely in urban areas. In addition, of course, there are the second and subsequent generations of Pilipino Americans.

Several analytic approaches, with some overlap, were used. It was decided to analyze Pilipinos living in Hawaii and California (where 28% and 40% of all Pilipinos, respectively, live). A large number of the older Pilipinos, many of them former farm workers or veterans of the U.S. military who immigrated earlier in the century, live with their children in these two states. California also has a number of younger, recently immigrated Pilipinos living in the state's urban areas.

Because of the interest in socio-economic characteristics of the first wave of Pilipino immigrants, many of whom remained in rural areas, the 14% of all Pilipinos who live in rural areas throughout the U.S. were studied separately.

Finally, to be able to identify many of the new immigrant Pilipinos who have settled in urban areas throughout the United States during the last decade, Pilipinos living in urban areas outside of Hawaii and California (28% of all Pilipinos are in this category) were studied separately. 1/

The results of our study have identified so many differences among the populations described above, that the elaborate patterns of subdividing the Pilipino population in the U.S. appear to be fully justified.

In addition to our analysis of the three major Asian subgroups in the U.S., two separate studies were done on the Korean Americans and the Hawaiians. The 1970 data on these two subgroups, as collected by the Census Bureau, were extremely limited, resulting in the brevity of our analysis.

The Hawaiian populations in the States of California and Hawaii were analyzed. Together, the Hawaiian population in these two states accounted for 86% of all persons of Hawaiian ancestry in the United States.

The data for the Korean analysis were taken from three major metropolitan areas (Honolulu, Los Angeles, and New York) as well as nationally. The Korean population in the United States is extremely dispersed and the population in the above mentioned areas reflects only a third of all the Koreans in this country. National data reflect the conditions of new immigrants who settled throughout the country.

1/ Only 8% of all Pilipinos in the United States outside of California and Hawaii live in rural areas. In a limited number of cases, data on rural Pilipinos living outside of California and Hawaii could not be extracted. Since the profile of the population is overwhelmingly urban (92%), however, the population is still referred to as an "urban" one.

III. ASIAN AMERICAN NATIONAL AND LOCAL ANALYSES

A. RECENT IMMIGRATION

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, in 1960 there were 878,000 Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipinos in the United States.1/ By 1970, the number reached 1,369,000, a 56% increase over the previous decade. 2/ During this same period of time, the population of the entire country had increased only 13%.

The Japanese population in this country increased by 27% over the past Census decade--from 464,000 to 591,000. For the Chinese and Pilipino populations, however, the increase was far greater; the Chinese population grew by 84% (from 237,000 to 435,000) and the Pilipino population increased by 95% (from 176,000 to 343,000). 3/

About two-thirds of the additional persons added to the Japanese population over the past decade are attributable to births--young children born in the U.S. between 1960 and 1970. Most of the increased population of Chinese and Pilipinos, on the other hand, is attributable to immigration. Two-thirds of the additiional population in both these Asian subgroups were immigrants while the remaining third were children born in the U.S. over the decade.

1/ U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, Final Report PC(2)-1C. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1963, Tables 3-5, pp. 3-5.

2/ This 1970 figure, as well as those figures in the next paragraph, are based on a 100% count of the Asian American populations, and thus are different from the figures shown in Table B-1, which are based only on a 20% count.

3/ 1960 Census of Population, op. cit.

Throughout most of this century immigration quotas levied against persons from other than European or Western Hemisphere nations reduced the entry of Asians to this country to the barest trickle. Since the end of World War II, however, a number of immigration laws have been revised to gradually increase the number of Asians allowed to enter this country, and the Asian population has grown markedly. Most recently, the 1965 repeal of national quotas 1/ has affected the Asians dramatically. 2/

In 1965, before the newest legislation went into effect, only 5% of all immigrants to this country came from Asia. By 1970, the proportion was up to 20% and by 1973, to nearly a quarter (24%). 3/ During the five-year period between 1965 and 1970, 277,000 persons from Asia immigrated to the U. S. (see Table A-1). During the first three years of the decade of the 70's, 270,000 have already immigrated from that region of the world (see Table A-2) and the rate of immigration is still increasing steadily.

1/ By this law, any nation is allowed an average of 20,000 immigrants a year, with certain preferences for resident aliens, relatives of U.S. citizens, and individuals with special skills. Refugees, immediate relatives of U. S. citizens and persons in certain other classes are exempt from numerical limitation, hence in some cases the total number of immigrants exceeds 20,000. For example, in FY 1973 a total of 30,800 Pilipinos immigrated to the United States. Close to 20,000 were subject to numerical limitations. Most of the remaining 10,800 were close relatives of U.S. citizens.

2/ Sung, B. L. Mountain of Gold, New York, 1967, Chapter 4-5, pp. 37-94, and Khan, E. J., Jr. "A Reporter at Large (1970 Census-II)," The New Yorker, Vol. XLIX, No. 35, October 22, 1973, pp. 108 & 111.

3/ U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1965-1973), U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., Table 9. See note on Table A-1 for a list of countries included in these figures.

Table A-1

Immigrants by Country of Birth: 1961-1970

Year of Immigration	China, Taiwan & Hong Kong	Japan	Philippines	Korea	Other Asia*	Total
1961	3,800	4,300	2,700	1,500	5,500	17,800
1962	4,700	3,900	3,400	1,500	4,900	18,400
1963	5,400	4,000	3,600	2,600	3,400	19,000
1964	5,600	3,700	3,000	2,400	2,400	17,100
1965	4,800	3,200	3,100	2,200	3,000	16,300
1966	17,600	3,400	6,100	2,500	3,400	33,000
1967	25,100	3,900	10,900	4,000	4,700	48,600
1968	16,400	3,600	16,700	3,800	5,600	46,100
1969	20,900	4,000	20,700	6,000	7,700	59,300
1970	18,000	4,500	31,200	9,300	10,800	73,800
Total	122,300	38,500	101,600	35,800	51,400	349,400

* Includes Southeast Asia (e.g. Burma, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam) East Asia (e.g. Ryukyu Islands, Tibet, Mongolia) and Oceania (e.g. Hawaii, Western Samoa, Fiji and the Pacific Islands). Does not include Western Asia (the Middle East), South Asia, Australia or New Zealand.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1970 Annual Report, Table 14.

Table A-2

Immigration of Asians Since the 1970 Census

Place of Birth	China, Taiwan & Hong Kong	Japan	Philip-pines	Korea	Other Asia*	Total
Population According to 1970 Census:	435,000	591,000	343,000	70,000	224,000	1,663,000
Immigration Since 1970 Census:						
1971	17,600	4,500	28,500	14,300	14,000	78,900
1972	21,700	4,800	29,400	18,900	19,400	94,200
1973	21,700	5,500	30,800	22,900	15,600	96,500
Total	61,000	14,800	88,700	56,100	49,000	269,600
Percent Increase:**	14%	3%	26%	80%	22%	16%

* See Footnote in Table A-1

** Percent Increase can only be taken as a low estimate as Immigration data do not take into consideration Asian aliens residing in the U.S. whose visa status is that of Non-Immigrant, but subject to change.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population: Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary PC(1)-C1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G
U.S. Dept. of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1973 Annual Report, Table 14

The rate of Japanese immigration has remained low, averaging 5,000 persons per year, with a slight increase since 1970, however. The highest rate of Chinese immigration for any one year occurred in 1967 at about the height of the Cultural Revolution. Since then, the number of Chinese immigrating each year is still high, averaging 19,000 per year between 1968 and 1973 (see Chart A-a). 1/

For Pilipinos, the peak rate of immigration appears to have been reached in 1970. However, the number of Pilipinos immigrating to the U. S. each year is still very high (averaging 30,000 per year between 1970 and 1973). Pilipinos are now the third largest Asian minority subgroup in the U. S. However, their rate of population increase due to immigration in the past decade surpasses by far the rate of growth of either the Chinese or the Japanese in the U. S. In fact, Pilipinos are now the largest group immigrating to the U.S. If the rates of immigration by Pilipinos, Chinese, and Japanese during the first three years of the 1970's are maintained at those levels throughout the 1970's, by 1980 Pilipinos will be the largest Asian subgroup, with Chinese still the second largest, and the Japanese third. 2/

The immigration rate of Koreans (which is discussed in greater detail in Section H of this report) has shown the greatest increase. Since 1965 their rate of immigration has grown more than ten-fold and since the 1970 Census was taken, the U.S. Korean population may have increased by as much as 80% due to this immigration.

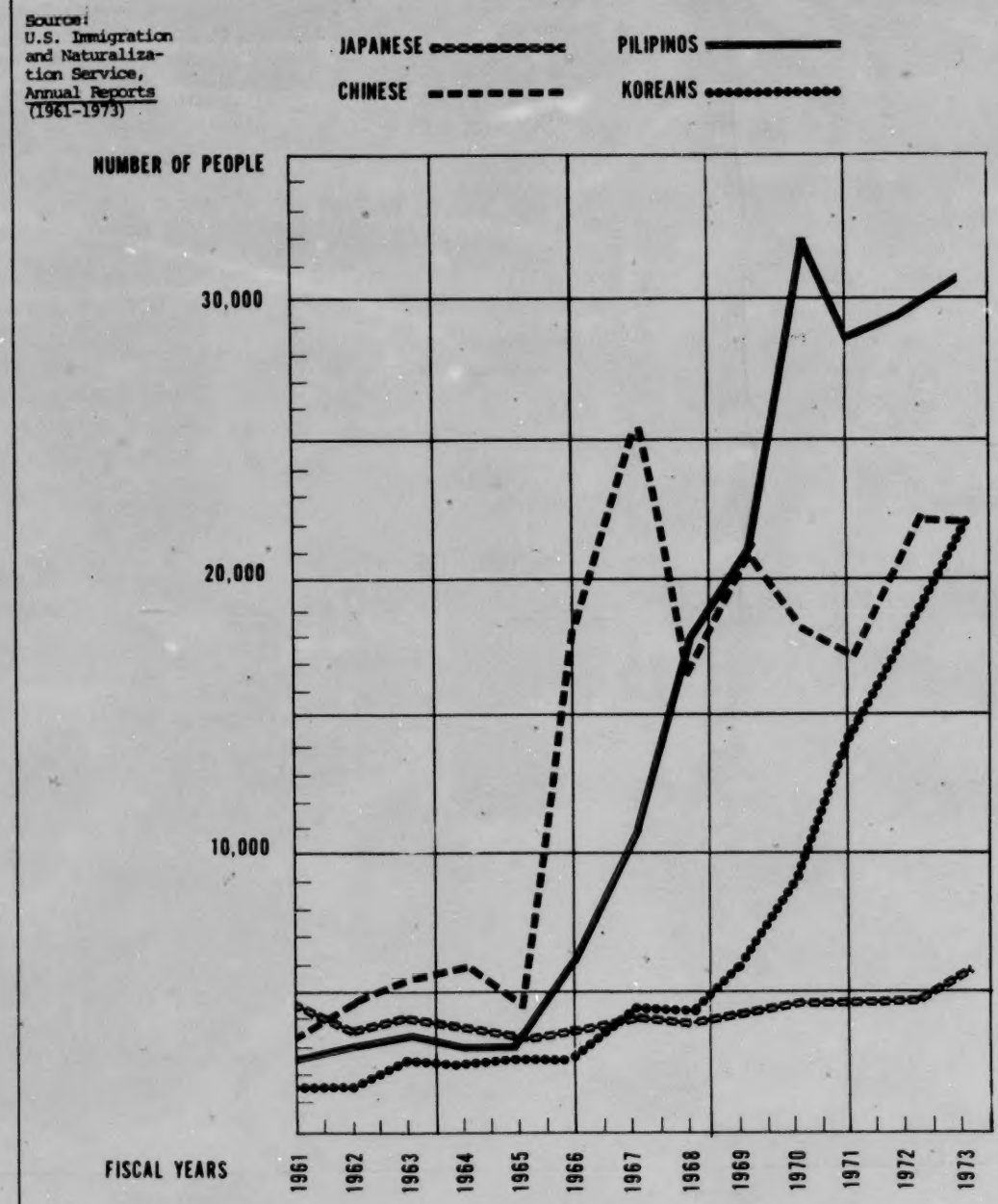
1/ U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, op. cit.

2/ U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, op. cit.

CHART A-a

ASIAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES: 1961- 1973

Source:
U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1961-1973)



III. B. POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

Geographic Distribution

Well over one-third of the Asian Americans live in California. 36% of all Japanese, 39% of all Chinese, and 40% of all Pilipinos live in the state (see Table B-1). Combined with persons of other Asian origin, there are at least 600,000 Asian Americans living in California.

Another 27% of the three major Asian American populations live in Hawaii. 36% of the Japanese, 12% of the Chinese, and 28% of the Pilipinos in the United States live in that state.

About 81% of the Japanese and 74% of the Pilipinos in the U.S. live in the western part of the country. Among the Asians, only the Chinese have a large portion of their population outside the West. Of the Chinese, 27% live in the Northeast--with almost 20% of all Chinese living in the State of New York alone.

While the Asian American population is clearly concentrated in certain parts of the country, the newly arriving Asian immigrants are not settling exclusively in these same areas. Some immigrants from Asia are settling in all the large cities in the most populous states in the country. Table B-2 shows the distribution of Asian immigrants between 1965 and 1973 by the regions and states of their intended residence.

Based on this table, 61% of Pilipino immigrants have settled in the western part of the country. Only 53% of recent Japanese immigrants and 44% of recent Chinese immigrants remained in the West. The Koreans, however (included in the table for purposes of comparisons with other Asian groups), have the most diffuse settlement pattern. Less than one-third of recent Korean immigrants remained in the West. Among all groups, significant numbers of immigrants are to be found in the North Central part of the United States, the Northeast and the South.

Because of this rather dispersed pattern of settlement by the immigrants, the rate of increase of Asians between 1960 and 1970 has actually been greater outside the West. While the population of Asians in the West increased by 69%. the rate of increase in the southern states was 106%; in the northeastern states, 124%; and in the midwestern states, 143%. 1/

1/ U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960 Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, op. cit., Tables 4 and 5.

Table B-1

Population Characteristics of the U.S. Total and Asian American Populations, 1970

		Japanese				Chinese					Pilipinos				
**	U.S. Total	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Other	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F.	N.Y.C.	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	Urban*
Total Population of Subgroup (000's)	203,212	588.3	217.2	213.3	157.9	431.6	52.6	170.4	59.1	70.2	336.7	95.7	135.2	48.4	97.1
% of Total Subgroup Population		100%	36%	36%	28%	100%	12%	39%	13%	16%	100%	28%	40%	14%	28%
Urban/Rural Distribution:															
% Urban	73	89	86	94	88	97	93	97	NA	NA	86	68	93	0	100
% Rural	27	11	14	6	12	3	7	3			14	32	7	100	0
Native and Foreign Born:															
% Native Born	95	79	90	79	64	53	89	54	48	34	47	65	42	55	37
% Born in Different State	28	20	2	27	43	16	3	14	9	9	18	3	23	8	37
% Foreign Born	5	21	10	21	36	47	11	46	52	67	53	35	58	45	63
Age Distribution:															
% Under 18 Years	34	29	31	30	25	32	35	32	31	31	36	42	36	37	31
% 65 Years & Over	10	8	8	7	9	6	8	6	9	7	6	7	7	10	5
% 65 Years & Over of Pop. 18 & Over	15	11	11	10	12	9	12	9	12	10	10	12	11	15	7
Median Age									Calif. Urban	N.Y. Urban					
Male (years)	26.8	29.6	30.5	29.2	28.8	27.8	28.1	27.1	27.1	3.9	28.3	28.2	29.3	34.2	28.2
Female (years)	29.3	34.3	32.9	32.9	37.8	25.8	28.8	25.8	25.9	26.7	24.5	20.2	24.4	21.5	25.1

*Except urban California and urban Hawaii.

**Totals for populations do not agree with data contained elsewhere in this report due to sampling error.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1
General Population Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-B1
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Table B-2

Area of Intended Residence
For Selected Asian Immigrant Groups:
1965 - 1973
By Country of Birth

	Japan*	China & Taiwan	Philippines	Korea**
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Regions:				
Northeast	16	34	15	24
North Central	14	12	15	22
South	17	10	9	22
West	53	44	61	32
Selected States				
California	34	34	40	20
Hawaii	9	4	17	5
Washington State	3	2	3	2
New York-New Jersey	9	27	11	16
Pennsylvania	4	2	2	4
Massachusetts	2	4	1	2
D.C.-Maryland-Virginia	4	3	4	9
Illinois	4	4	8	7
Michigan	2	2	2	3
Ohio	2	2	2	3
Texas	3	2	1	3
All Others	24	14	9	26

*For persons from Japan 1965-1967 only

**For persons from Korea 1969-1973 only

Source: U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1965-1973), Table 12.

The table below shows the distribution of Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipinos in the United States for the Census years 1960 and 1970. During the intervening years there has been a noticeable shift in all three populations away from the West, although that region still has, by far, the majority of Asian Americans.

Table B-3

Geographic Distribution of the Asian American Population: 1960-1970

1960	U.S.	Japanese	Chinese	Pilipino
Northeast	25%	4%	23%	6%
North Central	29	6	8	5
South	30	4	7	6
West	16	86	63	83
1970				
Northeast	24%	8%	27%	9%
North Central	28	7	9	8
South	31	5	8	9
West	17	81	57	74

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, op. cit., Tables 4 and 5.

Urban and Rural Residence

Of all Asian Americans, 90% lived in urban areas in 1970. This is one of the most urban of any ethnic population in the U.S. 97% of the Chinese Americans, 89% of the Japanese Americans, and 86% of the Pilipino Americans lived in urban areas as compared to the national average of 73% of the population living in urban areas.

The past decade has seen the shift in the Japanese and Pilipino populations toward a more urban residence. 1/ The shift has been greatest among the Pilipino population in America. In 1960, over one-fourth of their population lived in rural areas, and 23% of all Pilipino men worked in farm-related occupations. However, by 1970, with the arrival of large numbers of new, urban-oriented Pilipino immigrants and a move by younger U.S.-born Pilipinos to the cities, only 14% of the entire Pilipino population still lived in rural areas and 86% lived in urban areas. The percentage of Pilipino men working on farms is down by nearly a half (12%) from the previous decade. This percentage, however, is 2.5 times higher than the total population.

A similar decrease in both rural residence and farm-related occupations is seen among the Japanese. In 1960, 18% of the Japanese population lived in rural areas, but in 1970, only 11% of the population did and 89% lived in urban areas. The total population of Japanese living in rural areas decreased by 26% during that decade. The importance of agriculture as a major occupation also fell drastically. In 1960, 17% of all Japanese men worked in farm-related jobs, but by 1970, only 5% did--less than one-third the proportion in 1960.

The Chinese population has been living in urban areas for quite some time, and the proportion of their population that is urban (97%) has not changed over the past 10 years.

1/ 1960 data taken from U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, op. cit.

The past decade has seen an increasing trend by people living in large cities to move to the suburbs. In 1970, 31% of the total U.S. population lived in central cities of over 50,000 people, and 37% lived in suburbs around those cities. Among Asians, however, the proportion of the population living in the central cities still outnumbers the proportions living in suburbs. Nearly half (48%) of both the Japanese and Pilipino populations are to be found in the large inner cities, while 38% of the Japanese and 37% of the Pilipinos live in suburbs.

Among the Chinese, the inner-city population is proportionally much greater than in the other two Asian subgroups. Of all Chinese, 68% live in the central city, and another 25% are to be found in the suburbs. Most Chinatowns are located in downtown areas and,despite often cramped conditions, families (especially those recently arrived) have preferred to live near these communities. This tendency of new immigrants to stay within the high-density Chinese communities results in more overcrowding 1/ and fewer opportunities to learn English.

In the U.S.,with the movement of jobs and political power to the more affluent and more populous suburbs, Asians and other minorities who remain concentrated in the inner cities often find their influence less than might be expected from their numbers.

Locally, the Japanese and Pilipinos living in Hawaii are somewhat more rural than in California. Nearly a third of the Pilipinos and 14% of the Japanese in Hawaii are living in rural areas. In California, only 6% of the Japanese and 7% of Pilipinos live in rural areas. Despite their rural residence in the State of Hawaii, the overcrowded housing conditions for Pilipino households in Honolulu are the worst of any Asian group. 2/

1/ See Table G-5 in Section G. Poverty Characteristics.

2/ Ibid.

Nativity and Mobility

In 1970, over half of all the Pilipinos (53%) and nearly half of all the Chinese (47%) in the United States were foreign born. The proportion of Japanese of foreign birth was less than half as much. At 21%, however, the proportion for the Japanese was 4 times the proportion of foreign-born persons in the total U.S. population (5%).

Due to foreign-born immigrants not having settled in different parts of the U.S. at equal rates, the distribution of U.S.-born Asians and foreign-born Asians differs. Almost 80% of all Asians who were born in the United States live in the West, but only 58% of foreign-born Asians do. In the individual subgroups, 86% of U.S.-born Japanese live in the West while only 63% of their foreign-born population does; 81% of all U.S.-born Filipinos and 68% of the foreign-born live in the West; and 66% of U.S. born Chinese live in the West, while 46% of foreign-born Chinese do.

Asians who are native born have tended to remain in the state of their birth. Over 80% of all Asians born in the U.S. are still living in the state where they were born (see Table B-1). Of those Asians who are no longer living in the state of their birth, by far most of the movement in each group has been within or toward the western region of the country. 69% of all Japanese, 51% of all Chinese, and 66% of all Pilipinos who are U.S.-born and have changed states of residence since their birth moved to or within the western part of the country.

Of the Japanese in Hawaii, 90% are native born, in contrast to 79% in California. Japanese farm workers had started to arrive in the Islands in the 1890's but recently there has not been much movement of Japanese immigrants to the Islands, and the population is dominated by second-, third-, and fourth-generation, U.S.-born Japanese. Of the native-born Japanese in Hawaii, 98% were born in Hawaii, showing that there has not been much movement of Japanese born elsewhere in the U.S. into Hawaii either.

Over a third (36%) of the Japanese living outside Hawaii and California are of foreign birth. Those who are U.S. born and living in these areas have been highly mobile. As many as 43% of the U.S.-born Japanese living outside of Hawaii and California had moved to their 1970 residence from a different state--most of them (72%) had been born on the West Coast.

The nativity picture of the Chinese in Hawaii is very much like that of the Japanese. Almost 90% of the Chinese there are native born and about 97% of those native born were born in Hawaii. The heavy numbers of recent Chinese immigrants have not settled in Hawaii (see Table B-2), but are clustered in the Chinatowns in California and New York. 52% of the Chinese in San Francisco, 54% of the Chinese in Los Angeles, and 67% of the Chinese in New York City are foreign born.

As with the other two subgroups, the proportion of native born among Pilipinos is higher in Hawaii (65%) than elsewhere in the country (U.S. average of native-born Pilipinos is 47%). In California, 58% are foreign born, but the highest percentage of foreign born (63%) are residing in urban areas outside of California and Hawaii.

Table B-4 below shows the distribution of the foreign-born Pilipinos for selected areas, by age and sex.

Table B-4

Nativity of Pilipinos in Selected Areas

	Hawaii	Calif.	U.S. (ex. Hawaii & Calif.)
% Foreign Born	35%	58%	63%
% Male	66	57	50
% Female	33	43	50
Median Age of Foreign Born (Years)			
Male	56.4	42.1	28.4
Female	35.7	31.2	27.1

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, PC(1)-D1, D6, D13, U.S. Summary, California and Hawaii.

Although the proportion of Pilipinos immigrating to Hawaii is the second largest of any state (17% of all Pilipino immigrants between 1965 and 1973 have settled in Hawaii) the proportion of foreign born in the state is still lower than elsewhere. The foreign born are still predominantly older immigrants, particularly the men who came during the first wave of immigration. Pilipinos living in areas outside Hawaii and California are, to a greater extent, only the more recent immigrants; while in California one finds large numbers of both.

Sex Distribution

In the beginning of the century, the Asians who came to this country to work and live were chiefly male laborers. Although some (chiefly the Japanese workers) were able to bring their wives over too, males in all the Asian populations outnumbered females in every Census count until 1960 (see Table B-5). In that Census, Japanese women outnumbered Japanese men for the first time, the numbers of women having been greatly increased by the thousands of Japanese women who married Americans during the U.S. occupation of Japan. Chart B-a illustrates the Japanese and Chinese immigration populations by year of immigration and sex ratio. A very marked increase in numbers of Japanese women immigrating to this country occurs after 1950. The increase in immigration of Japanese men during this time period is much lower.

Males still outnumber females in the Chinese and Pilipino populations. However, the trend has swung toward a predominance of women immigrants 1/ with the result that Asian female populations in this country are growing at a faster rate than the Asian male populations and the gap between numbers of men and numbers of women in these two populations is rapidly closing.

In 1960, there were almost two Pilipino males for every Pilipino female in the country, but in 1970 the proportion of males was only 10% higher than the proportion of females. The gap in the elderly population still exists. Among Pilipinos 65 years and over, males outnumber females 4.5 times. Among Chinese Americans, the gap between males and females decreased from 14% to 6% over the past decade. But in the elderly population, a 14% difference between the two sexes remained constant from 1960 to 1970.

Since Japanese females already outnumbered males in 1960, the higher percentage of female immigrants, coupled with the fact that women tend to outlive men, has created a greater gap. Males now are only 46% of the Japanese population, and among elderly, only 43%.

1/ U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Op. Cit.

Table B-5

Sex Ratios of the Asian American Population:

By Census Years

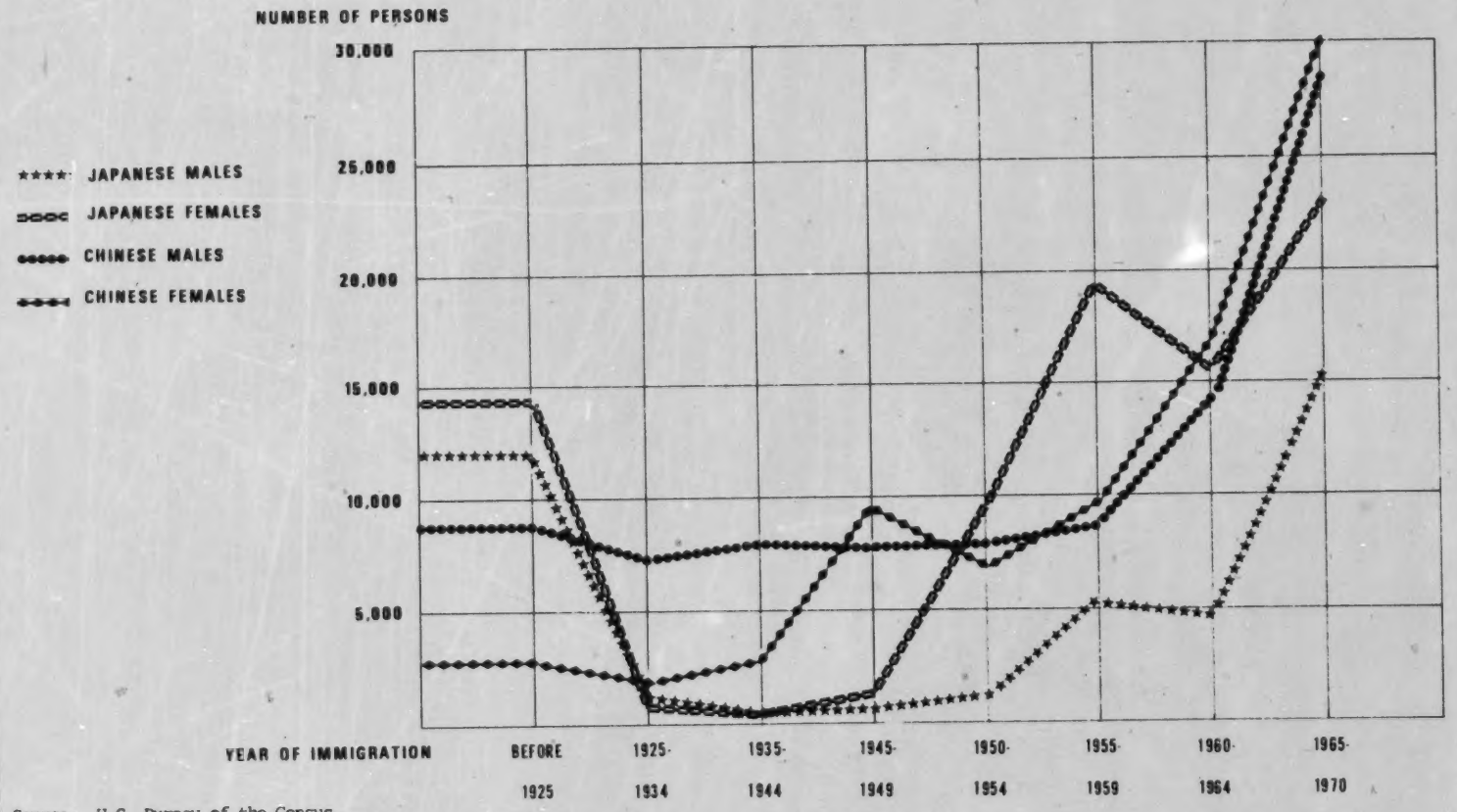
1900-1970

Census Years	Total	% Male	% Female
Japanese			
1900	85,700	83%	17%
1910	152,700	78	22
1920	220,600	61	39
1930	278,700	56	44
1940	285,100	54	46
1950	326,400	52	48
1960	464,300	48	52
1970	591,300	46	54
Chinese			
1900	118,700	93	7
1910	94,400	90	10
1920	85,200	82	18
1930	102,200	74	26
1940	106,300	69	31
1950	150,000	63	37
1960	237,300	57	43
1970	435,100	53	47
Pilipino			
1900	NA	NA	NA
1910	2,800	89	11
1920	26,600	83	17
1930	108,300	88	12
1940	98,500	82	18
1950	122,700	73	27
1960	176,300	64	36
1970	343,100	55	45

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, General Population Characteristics Final Report, United States Summary PC(1)-B1

CHART B-a

YEAR OF IMMIGRATION OF 1970 JAPANESE AND CHINESE FOREIGN BORN POPULATION



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: National Origin and Language PC(2)-1A

Between 1965 and 1973, 60% of all immigrants from Japan, China, the Philippines, and Korea were women. In numerical terms, 81,000 more women than men in these subgroups immigrated to the U.S. during those 9 years, an average of 9,000 more every year. 1/ The greatest imbalance in the ratio of men to women immigrating occured among the Japanese. Between 1961 and 1970, 79% of the 38,500 immigrants from Japan were women. They represented 10% of all the Japanese women in the United States in 1970 (see Table B-6).

Because of the larger total numbers of immigrants, however, the effect of the predominance of women among the immigrants had a greater effect on the Chinese and Pilipino populations. As of 1970, one out of every three Chinese females and two out of every five Pilipino females in the United States had come to this country some time during the previous decade.

The higher proportion of women also becomes manifest in an examination of the nativity of Asian Americans by sex and by age (see Table B-7). In four major Asian American subgroups (Koreans included for purposes of comparison) more women than men in their twenties are of foreign birth. (In the Japanese population, the predominance of female immigrants since World War II has resulted in a greater imbalance of the percent of foreign born among men and women between 30 and 50 years of age.)

1/ U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service. Annual Reports (1965-1973)

Table B-6

Sex of Asian Immigrants: 1961-1970

	Japanese	Chinese	Pilipino
Total Number of Immigrants FY 1961-1970	38,500	122,300	101,600
Total Number of Males	8,000	58,500	42,100
% of All Immigrants (Male and Female)	21%	48%	41%
% of Subgroup's Total 1970 Male Population	3%	26%	22%
Total Number of Females	30,500	63,800	59,500
% of All Immigrants (Male and Female)	79%	52%	59%
% of Subgroup's Total 1970 Female Population	10%	31%	39%

Source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service
Annual Reports (1961-1970)

Table B-7

Percent of All Persons, by Sex and Age Groups,

Who are Foreign Born, 1970

Years of Age	Japanese		Chinese		Pilipinos		Koreans	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total (All ages)	15%	26%	47%	48%	55%	51%	47%	59%
0- 9	7	6	15	15	18	19	21	23
10-19	3	4	29	28	26	27	30	34
20-29	15	21	55	60	61	67	63	83
30-39	23	50	68	67	69	72	82	87
40-49	9	32	56	60	71	70	47	49
50-64	10	10	61	64	88	74	25	38
65 and over	65	65	65	70	88	67	45	52

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population Detailed Characteristics U. S. Summary PC(1)-D1.

Many factors may contribute to this predominance of young women in the immigrant population. During the U.S. conflict in Vietnam, the U.S. had servicemen and civilians throughout Asia and, inevitably, large numbers of marriages took place between American men and local Asian women. 1/

Asian men who had become U.S. citizens were finally able to marry and bring to this country Asian wives (in many cases women who were one or two generations younger than themselves). Between 1965 and 1973, 87,000 women from Asia immigrated to the U.S. as wives of Asian and non-Asian U.S. citizens. 2/

But other women, too, came to the U.S. without either an Asian or a non-Asian husband. 3/ As cities in Asia have become over-crowded, women have immigrated to the U.S. seeking better opportunities. Mandatory military service requirements in such countries as Formosa and Korea, on the other hand, have hampered male immigration.

Many problems beset the Asian woman immigrant, however. Those who married Americans often find their husbands' culture a strange one and feel lonely and isolated. 4/ The working woman may find that, despite her relatively high wages, the cost of living in the U.S. is so high that what she earns is hardly enough to support herself and her family.

1/ "This War's War Brides," Newsweek, April 9, 1973, p. 78, also see discussion on Intermarriage in Section C of this report.

2/ U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1965-1973), Table 6 (includes China, Hong Kong, Philippines, Korea, Indonesia, Ryukyu Islands, Vietnam, and Thailand).

3/ Taking Pilipino women as an example, in states like Illinois or New York where almost all the Pilipino women in their twenties or early thirties are recent immigrants, more than half are still single (53%). The proportion who were unmarried when they entered the U.S. is probably much greater, since some of these women have married since their arrival.

4/ cf Newsweek, op. cit. and "International Marriage Group," Asian Women's Center Newsletter (Los Angeles), June 1973, p.14.

Age Distribution

The age distributions of the three largest Asian subgroups have been heavily influenced by patterns of immigration over the past century. Tight immigration quotas and their subsequent repeal, war-time marriages, and the drain of professionals from their native countries have produced three very unique populations. Chart B-b "Asian American Age-Sex Pyramids," illustrates the population profiles for the three subgroups. Data for selected local areas are reported in Table B-1.

Comparisons with 1960

The past 10 years have seen some change in the Asian American populations in terms of age distributions. The Asian Americans are having fewer children than in 1960. For example, in all three major subgroups, the proportion of the population under 18 is getting smaller and the proportion under 9 takes an even greater drop. 1/ In 1960, children under 9 were about 23% of the total population in the three subgroups. In ten years, that proportion has dropped to 22% among Pilipinos; 17% among Chinese; and about 15% among Japanese.

In 1970, the percentage of elderly in the Asian populations, while lower than the proportion of elderly in the total population, had increased over the previous decade. In 1960 only 4% of all Pilipinos; 5% of all Chinese; and 6% of all Japanese were over 65. Ten years later, Pilipino and Chinese elderly had increased to 6% and Japanese to 8% of their total populations.

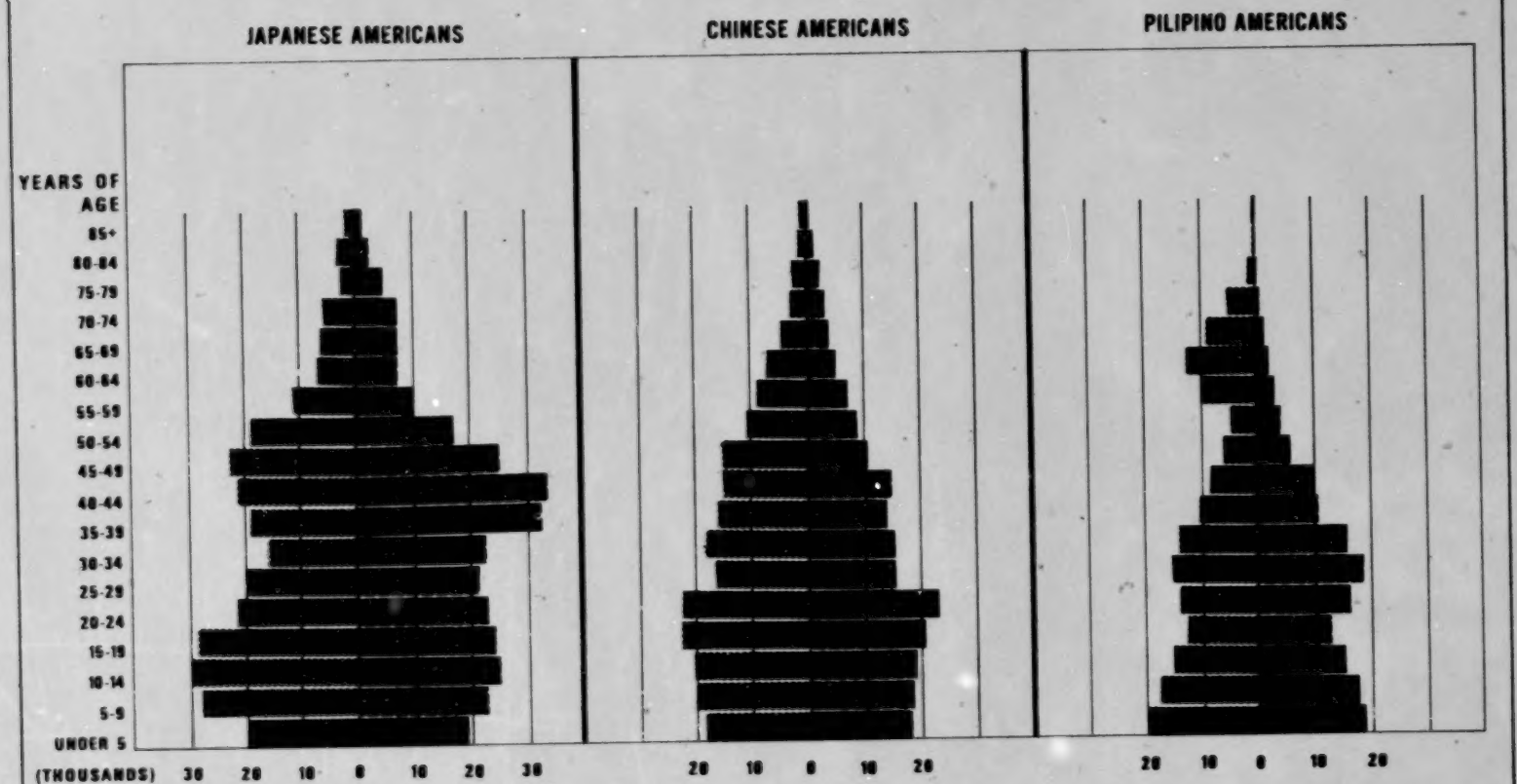
Japanese

Japanese Americans have a much smaller percentage of young people in their population (29%) than any other group or the U.S. total (34%) (see Table B-1). Part of this may be due to the lower birth rate of the third-generation Japanese.

1/ A difference must be drawn between the proportion of total persons in the population who are under 18 and the proportion of families with any children under 18. It will be noted in the following section, that in all Asian subgroups, more families have some children under 18 than in the total U.S. population. However, there are also more adults living in Asian households and, therefore, proportionally fewer persons in the population are under 18.

CHART B-b

ASIAN AMERICANS AGE-SEX PYRAMIDS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Report: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Other factors include a relatively high intermarriage rate, particularly between Japanese women and non-Japanese men. The children (and grandchildren) resulting from these marriages may no longer be enumerated racially as Japanese. 1/

While the percentage of young Japanese is lower than national averages, the percentage of elderly Japanese who are 65 and over (11% of those 18 and over), is also lower than the national averages (15%). A number of factors are involved here. Some of the Issei (first-generation Japanese) returned to Japan, leaving their grown children behind. There has been continuing Japanese immigration (albeit not at the rate of Chinese or Pilipinos) and these immigrants increase the percentage of younger adult Japanese Americans. Finally, while the first (Issei) generation are in their late 60's, 70's, and 80's now, the Nisei (second generation) are mostly in their 40's and 50's. Hence, as the elderly Japanese pass on, one can probably expect a dip in the proportion of older Japanese for a decade or two until the next generation reaches its 60's (see Chart B-c "Age-Sex Profiles of Japanese Americans by Nativity").

In rural areas, elderly Japanese have stayed behind while some younger Japanese have moved to cities. As a result there is a greater proportion of elderly Japanese living in the country. 15% of all Japanese 65 years old and over live in rural areas, representing 16% of the total Japanese rural population.

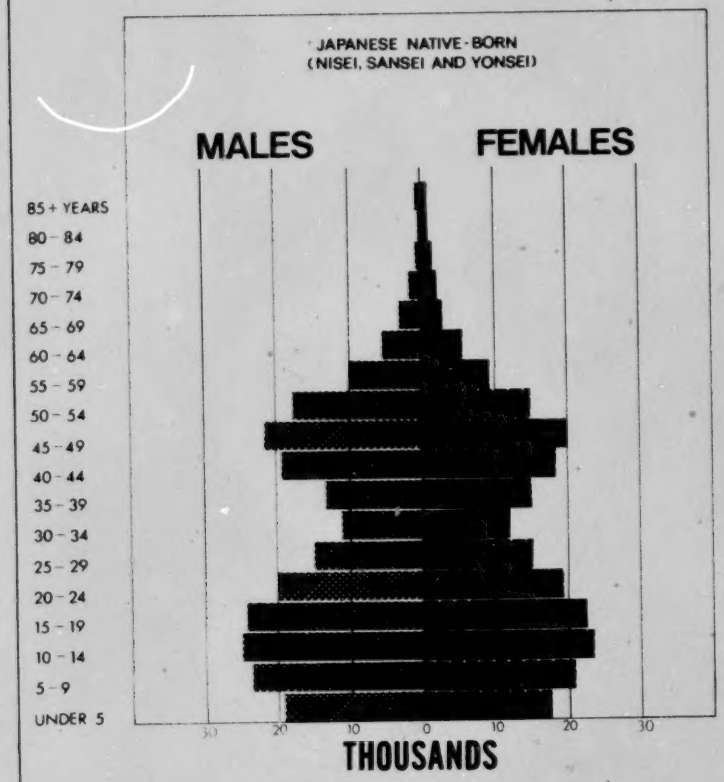
Some Japanese men brought their wives or sent for them from Japan during the first two decades of the century, so that among the elderly Japanese, 65 and over, the sex ratio (57% women, 43% men) is similar to that of the U. S. As we shall see, this is <u>not</u> the case with the Pilipinos and the Chinese.

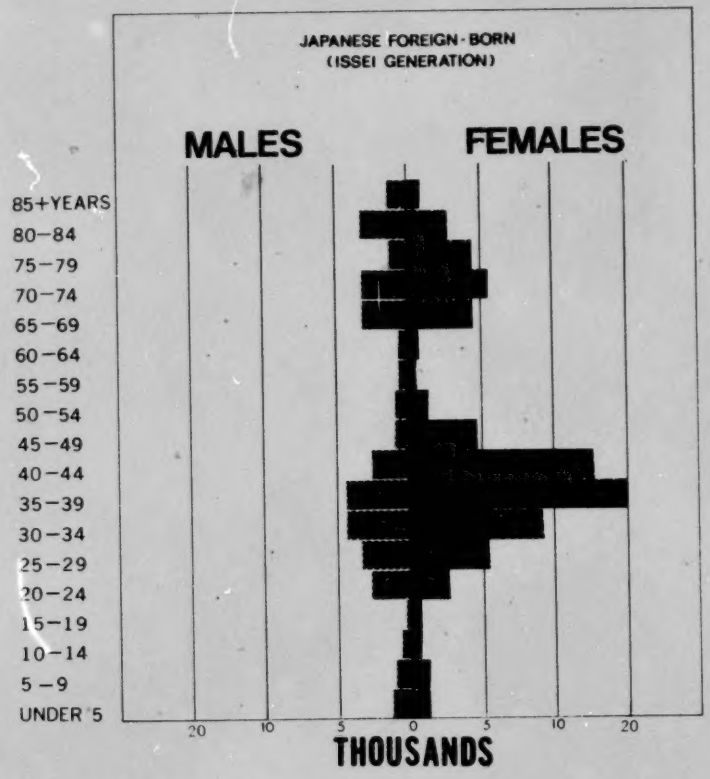
The national Japanese age-sex pyramid (see Chart B-b) shows a larger number of women clustered in the 35-54 year old age group (again the so-called war bride population). The high percentage of women of this age in the total Japanese female population, combined with a lower Japanese birth rate, has resulted in the Japanese female median age being higher than

1/ Where the race of a particular individual is in question, the U.S. Census has assigned that person the race of his or her father.

CHART B-c

AGE-SEX PROFILES OF JAPANESE AMERICANS BY NATIVITY





Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary PC(1)-D1

that of any other group (34.3 years as compared to 29.3 for the U. S. nationally). The median age of Japanese men (29.6 years) is closer to that of the U. S. as a whole (26.8).

Chinese

The age distribution of the Chinese population today more closely approximates a perfect pyramid than either of the other two Asian subgroups. This was not true a decade ago, when Chinese men vastly outnumbered Chinese women. But with the entry of wives and families, the population has become more equalized. In 1970, the percent of Chinese children under 18 was 32%, just under the U.S. average of 34%.

Because the influx of new immigrants has not brought with it large numbers of elderly, the percent of elderly among the Chinese (9% of the 18 and over population) is much lower than the U.S. total (15%).

A higher percentage of the elderly Chinese are males (57%), compared to only 42% in the elderly population of the U. S. This reflects the consequences of earlier immigration barriers, which cut off male Chinese laborers from their families by limiting the entry of wives and families.

The median age of Chinese men, 27.8 years, is close to the national average of 26.8. However, the median age for women (25.8) is lower than that of women in the U. S. as a whole (29.3). Earlier immigration barriers preventing large number of women from entering, coupled with the recent influx of young women, has lowered the overall age composition of the Chinese female population.

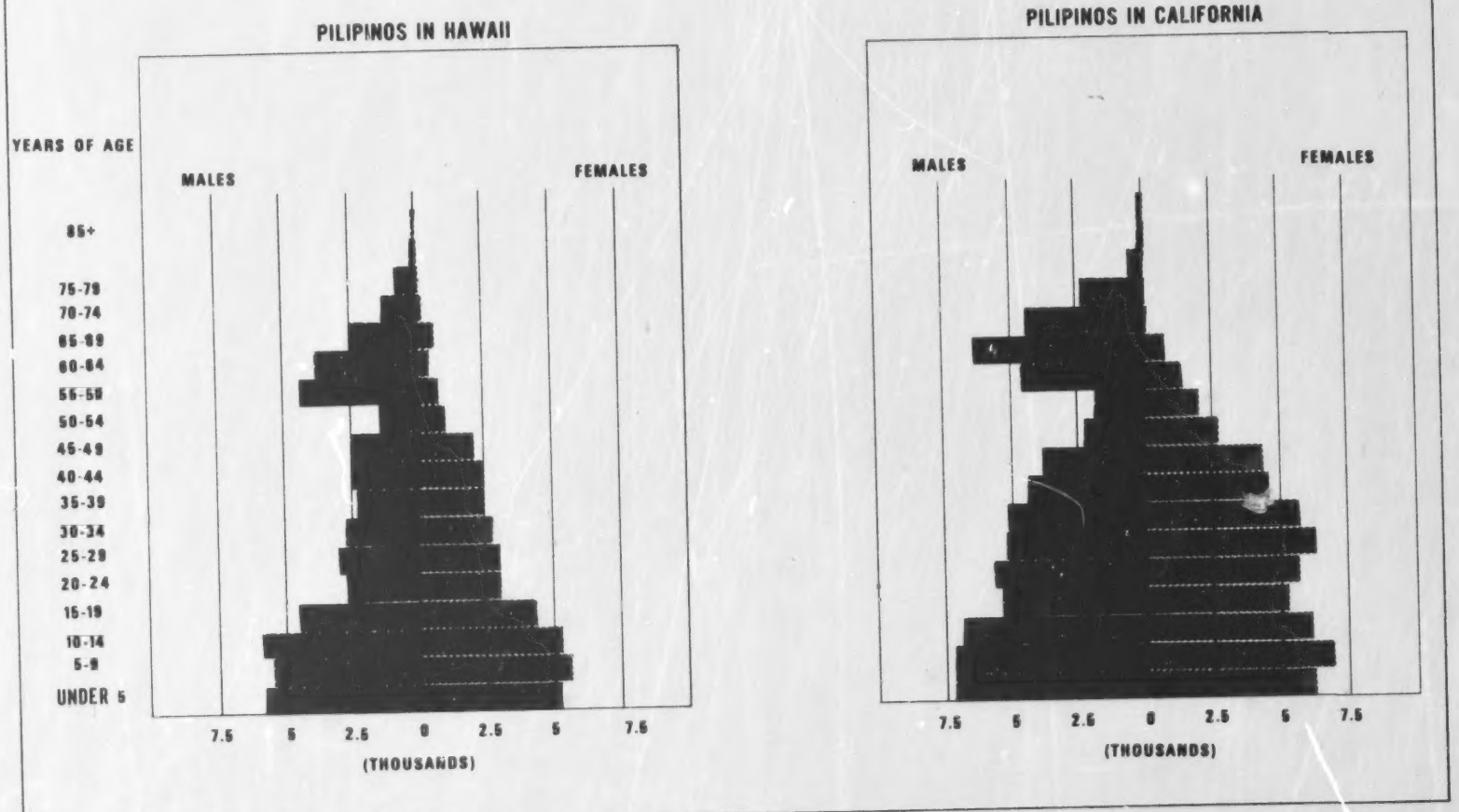
Pilipinos

The age distribution of Pilipinos is the most complex of all the Asians because the pattern varies from place to place (see Charts B-d[1] and B-d[2]). In California and rural areas, young people 18 and under are 36% of the Pilipino population--just above the U.S. average of 34%. In Hawaii, which has a largely native-born Pilipino population, the 18 and under population is up to 42% of the total population, while in the urban areas outside Hawaii and California, where the population is mostly recent immigrants, the proportion of children is down to 31% of the total. 1/

1/ A closer look at the young population outside Hawaii and California shows that a majority of those children are under five--children of the new immigrant populations. Numbers of Pilipino children substantially decrease at the 10-14 and 15-19 year old age levels. Another factor is a relatively high intermarriage rate among Pilipino women in these areas (see footnote on page 33).

CHART B-d (1)

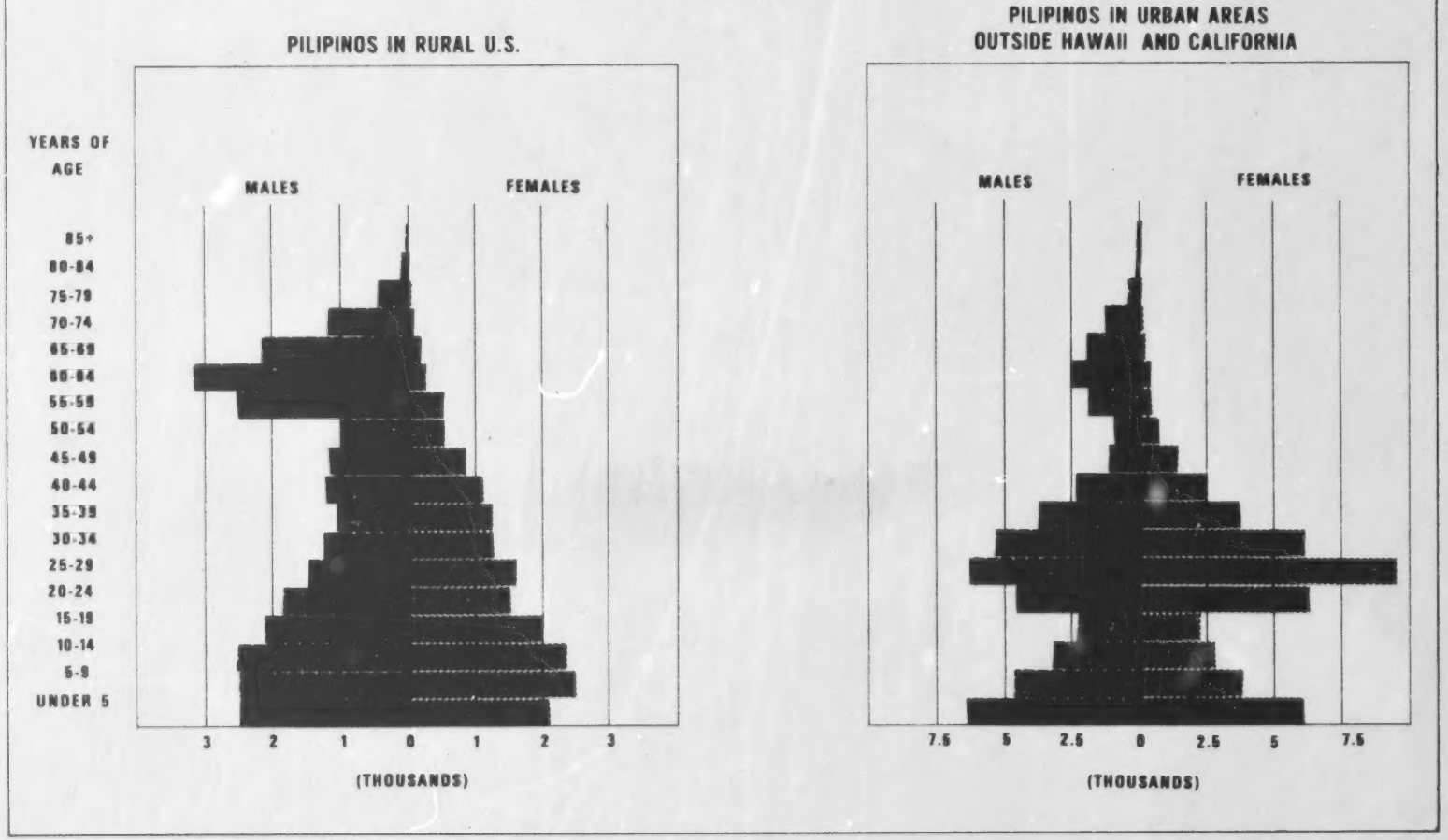
AGE-SEX PYRAMIDS OF PILIPINOS IN SELECTED AREAS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

CHART B-d (2)

AGE-SEX PYRAMIDS OF PILIPINOS IN SELECTED AREAS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G

New immigrations and the increase of second and third generation Pilipino Americans have reduced the proportion of elderly among Pilipinos adults to 10% which is only two-thirds of the U.S. average of 15%. In the urban areas outside Hawaii and California, where the recent younger immigrants have rapidly far outnumbered the elderly, only 7% of the adult population is 65 years old or over. Only in rural areas, where more older Pilipino farm workers have tended to stay after some of the younger people have moved to urban areas, is the percentage of elderly up to 15% of all persons over 18--on a par with the U.S. national average. 1/ Of all Pilipinos over 65, 22% are rural residents.

While 15% of all Pilipinos over 18 living in rural areas were 65 years old or over, another 21% in 1970 were between the ages of 55 and 64. The term "elderly" creates a division between persons who are 65 and over and the rest of the population. But an analysis of the age structure of Pilipinos of foreign birth (see Chart B-e) reveals that what is commonly regarded as the older generation of Pilipinos includes both persons who are 65 and over and persons who have yet to turn 65 and are still middle aged. By the next decade, all these men will be elderly.

82% of both elderly Pilipinos and those 55-64 years old are male. More than any other group, restrictions on the immigration of Asian families have greatly affected the older Pilipino Americans.

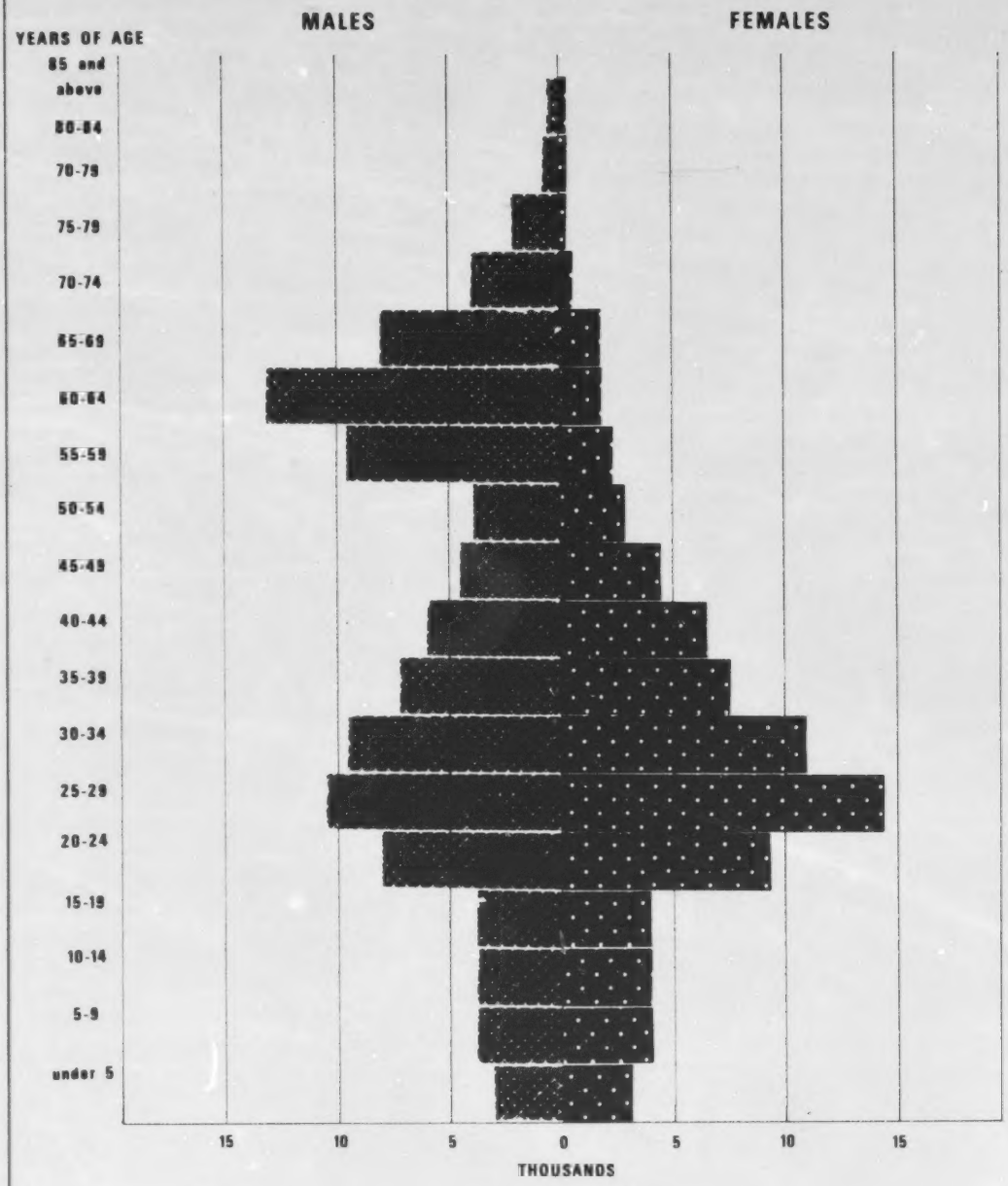
The median age of Pilipino men is 28.3 years, close to the U.S. average of 26.8; while the median for women, at 24.5, is considerably lower than the U.S. average of 29.3. The lack of older women has resulted in a lowering of the overall age of the Pilipino female population.

1/ For a discussion of the distribution of Pilipino workers employed as farm laborers and farm managers see Section E, Employment.

CHART B-e

FOREIGN BORN PILIPINOS

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1



Nationality

Details on the citizenship status of non-U.S. born Asians are only available for two subgroups--the Chinese and the Japanese. Table B-8 breaks out the status of persons in these two subgroups and for the total foreign-born population by the years that persons immigrated to the United States.

There has been a clear lag on the part of pre-1950 Japanese and Chinese immigrants to adopt American citizenship. For example, among the earliest immigrants still living, those who came to the United States prior to 1925, only 9% among all groups are still not U.S. citizens. But 23% of all Chinese and a high 54% of all Japanese who immigrated this early remain non-U.S. citizens. Victims of laws which were in effect throughout most of the first half of the century prohibiting the granting of citizenship to Asians, these persons continue to be at a disadvantage due to non-citizenship status.

The rates at which the post-1950 Japanese and Chinese immigrants are being granted U.S. citizenship, on the other hand, are comparable to the rates for all immigrant groups. As of 1970, slightly under 90% of all Japanese and Chinese foreign born immigrating in 1965 and after were aliens.

Overall, 56% of both Chinese and Japanese foreign born in this country were not U.S. citizens compared to 36% of all foreign-born persons. Data on the citizenship status of foreign-born Asians from countries other than Japan and China are not available by individual country. However, out of the total foreign-born population from East Asian countries other than Japan and China, 67% were non-U.S. citizens.

Table B-8

Citizenship Status As of 1970 By Year of Immigration

Year of Immigration	All Foreign Born		Foreign-Born Japanese		Foreign-Born Chinese	
	% Naturalized	% Alien	% Naturalized	% Alien	% Naturalized	% Alien
1965-1970	12%	88%	13%	87%	10%	90%
1960-1964	31	69	43	57	30	70
1955-1959	58	42	65	35	65	35
1950-1954	72	28	82	18	72	28
1945-1949	82	18	78	22	77	23
1935-1944	90	10	69	31	79	21
1925-1934	91	9	56	44	81	19
Before 1925	91	9	46	54	77	23
Not Reported	68	32	60	40	49	51
Total	64	36	44	56	44	56

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population Subject Reports: National Origin and Language PC(2)-1A.

III. C. FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS

In traditional Asian cultures, a high emphasis was placed on families and family ties. Being members of the same family implied that persons had special responsibilities to one another, and the concept of "family" extended well beyond the nuclear family unit to include grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins as well.

In the U.S., the majority society has frequently pointed to family strength and family stability as a reason for the supposed lack of social problems among Asian Americans. However, the 1970 Census data show that, in many cases, Asian families are not more stable than other families in America. (And, where the rates of family stability are higher than the average, a myriad of other socio-economic problems still exist.)

The analysis below covers the topics of families, interracial marriages, and primary individuals, based upon statistics shown in Table C-1, for the three major Asian American subgroups: Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipinos.

Families

Comparison with 1960

As with the total U.S. population, the decade has seen more Asian families breaking up, and an increase in families headed by women. 1/ The rate of female-headed families went up 1% among the Chinese (from 6% to 7%), 2% among the Japanese (from 8% to 10%), and 4% among the Pilipinos (from 5% to 9%). The rate of Asian women divorced or separated from their husbands also increased. For Japanese, the rate doubled from 2% to 4%; for Chinese, 1% (2% to 3%); and for Pilipinos, 1% (3% to 4%).

Asian women are marrying later. Just over half of all Japanese and Chinese women between 20 and 24 years old were single in 1960. By 1970, 62% of Japanese women and 89% of Chinese women of that age group were still single. Among Pilipinos in 1960, only 39% of those 20-24 years old were single and by 1970, 49% were.

1/ U. S. Census of Population 1960, Subject Reports: Non-white Population by Race, op. cit.

Table C-1

Family Characteristics of the U.S. Total and Asian American Populations, 1970

	U.S. Total	Japanese				Chinese					Pilipino				
		U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Other	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F.	N.Y.C.	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	***Urbar
% Husband-Wife Families	86%	86%	87%	86%	83%	89%	85%	88%	87%	89%	86%	86%	86%	88%	86
% With Children Under 18	56	61	61	63	57	66	64	66	61	62	69	72	69	65	68
% With Children Under 6	27	27	25	28	28	33	28	32	26	31	42	40	39	34	49
% Persons Under 18 Living with Both Parents	85	89	90	91	86	90	87	91	90	91	83	83	83	84	85
% Female-Headed Families	11	10	9	10	14	7	10	8	9	5	9	6	9	4	10
% With Children Under 18	55	56	44	58	66	49	39	50	48	46	69	73	73	72	60
% With Children Under 6	21	15	10	18	18	13	12	9	7	10	39	38	40	35	39
% Primary Individuals	20	21	14	22	29	22	12	23	27	23	21	19	21	24	23
% Male	37	48	48	51	46	69	54	66	65	74	70	89	75	90	51
% Female	63	52	52	49	54	31	46	34	35	26	30	11	25	10	49
% Families with 3 or More Own Children Under 18	20	18	18	18	16	23	24	23	23*	22**	28	33	27	33	24
% Families with 5 or More Persons	25	27	31	26	19	35	38	37	37*	35**	38	49	37	44	30

*California, urban
**New York State, urban
***Except urban California and urban Hawaii

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Families

Japanese

The percentage of Japanese families within which both parents are living together is, at 86%, the same rate as that of the country as a whole. Of those families, the percentage with children under 18 is slightly higher than in the country as a whole, while the percentage with children under six is just at the national rate, suggesting, perhaps, a tendency for new younger Japanese families to be smaller. The percentage of young persons 18 and under who live with both their parents (89%) is higher than the U.S. average (85%). These data suggest a higher degree of stability among Japanese families, but other data provide a differing picture.

The percentage of Japanese families with a female head, at 10% is nearly as high as the U.S. average (11%). The rate is higher still in areas outside of Hawaii and California where 14% of all Japanese families are headed by females--3% above the U.S. average.

The apparent discrepancy results from there being a high rate of marriages between Japanese women and non-Japanese men (largely a result of American soldiers having been stationed in Japan since World War II) which has skewed the data on Japanese family patterns. According to Census definitions used in 1970, a family was identified by the ethnic origin of its head--who in the case of a husband/wife family was the husband. Although a Japanese wife married to a non-Japanese husband in 1970 was herself identified by Census as being of Japanese origin, her family unit was identified according to the origin of her non-Japanese husband. Only if the wife and husband dissolved their marriage and the woman herself become head, would such a family be identified as Japanese.

In that population group where most Japanese "war brides" would be found (Japanese of foreign birth, 25-44 years of age) women outnumber men almost 4 to 1. The proportion of Japanese families with a head 25-44 years of age who is female similarly increases. 29% of all foreign-born Japanese family heads in this age group are women. The data, however, do not necessarily indicate an overall instability of "war bride" marriages. 11% of all the foreign born Japanese women, 25-44 years are household heads--1% less than the proportion among all women of the same age in the total U.S. population.

Compared to the total population, a slightly lower percentage of Japanese female family heads (of all age groups) are widowed (see Table C-2). A higher percentage compared to the total population are married with a husband absent for unspecified reasons and a much lower percentage than in the total U.S. population declared themselves legally separated from their husbands. The proportion who are divorced is the same as among all female family heads in the U.S.

Table C-2

Marital Status of

Female Family Heads: 1970

	U.S. Total	Japanese	Chinese	Pilipinos
% of All Families with a Female Head	11%	10%	7%	9%
Marital Status of Women who are Family Heads				
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Separated	17	8	6	9
Married, Husband Absent	6	17	12	21
Widowed	41	38	49	21
Divorced	24	24	19	18
Single	12	13	13	18

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G

Chinese

Of all the ethnic subgroups, the Chinese have the highest rate of retention of their two-parent families. Almost 90% of all Chinese families remain in the husband-wife mode. The percentage of these families that have young children is larger than the rate for the U.S. as a whole. Of all Chinese husband/wife families, 66% have children under 18 (compared to 56% for the total the U.S.). One reason for the higher percentage is the recent influx of female Chinese immigrants of child-bearing age, so that a higher percentage of the Chinese husband/wife families in the U.S. are within the age bracket most likely to have children 18 and under. 1/

The stability of Chinese families is remarkable as far as lack of divorce is concerned. 90% of the young people 18 and under live with both their parents (5% higher than the U.S. total and highest of any group) and the percent of female-head families, at 7%, is the lowest of any group.

Pilipinos

The percentage of Pilipino husband-wife families is the same as that of the U.S. and the Japanese. However, the percentage of such families with children under 18 (69%) and under 6 (42%) are far higher than the total U.S. (56% and 27% respectively).

The proportion of Pilipino families containing young children is high because a greater proportion of Pilipino husbands and wives are of child-bearing and child-rearing age. 2/ Many second-generation Pilipinos have started their own families and now have young children. Evidence of this exists in Hawaii, where the Pilipino population under 50 is largely native-born. There, the proportion of families with children under 18 is over 70%.

1/ See footnote in discussion of Age Distribution in Section B.

2/ See Section E. on Employment.

At the same time, the newly immigrated young Pilipinos are starting new families. Local data in the urban areas outside Hawaii and California show that nearly 50% of the Pilipino husband-wife families have children under 6; 7% more than Pilipino families nationally.

The percentage of female-headed Pilipino families is, at 9% nationally, lower than the U.S. average (11%). The proportions for Pilipinos in rural areas and in Hawaii are very much lower. Only 4% and 6%, respectively, of all families in these places are headed by a woman. But in the urban areas outside of Hawaii and California, the rate of families headed by females (10%) is almost up to the average for the total U.S. population.

An analysis of Pilipino female family heads by their marital status (see Table C-2) reveals that compared to the total U.S. population, a much lower percentage of the women are legally separated, widowed or divorced. A fifth are married with an absent husband and nearly a fifth are single.

As with Pilipino families in general, the Pilipino families with a female head are relatively young. Of the female-headed families, 69% have children under 18 and 39% have children under 6. This high incidence is in large part due due to the growing number of young widows who married and bore the children of elderly husbands, the first immigrant generation. Certainly this trend, coupled with the very high employment rates of Pilipino women, especially among those dispersed in areas outside Hawaii and California, suggests that the availability of adequate preschool child care services is one of the major needs of Pilipino women in the U.S. today. 1/ 2/

Interracial Marriages

The extent to which young people choose to marry within or outside of their subgroup is an important measure of the extent to which a group's cultural or racial identity will be preserved.

1/ 15% of Pilipino children, 3-4 years old, are enrolled in preschool programs, compared to 13% for the entire U.S. population, 31% for Japanese children, and 24% for Chinese children.

2/ A comparison of the age distributions of Pilipino and U.S. total female family heads reveals dramatic differences:

	25-34 yrs.	35-44 yrs.	45-64 yrs.	65 yrs. & Over
U.S. Total	20%	22%	38%	20%
Pilipino	40%	34%	22%	5%

To a certain degree, interracial marriages involving Asians have resulted in immigration. That is, a number of Asian women entered the U.S. as brides of servicemen and other Americans. Had it not been for their marriage, they would not have entered the country in the first place.

Another factor is the relative size of a subgroup within the majority society or its dispersal within the society. The fewer the numbers within a particular area, the more likely it is that there will be significant numbers of intermarriages, as members of the subgroup are more likely to interact socially with persons not of their own race. Any imbalance in sex distributions, i.e., a predominance of males or females, will also increase the likelihood of intermarriage.

Large numbers of a subgroup's workers in professional occupations, may enhance the likelihood of individuals marrying persons of a different race. For women, high participation rates in college and in the labor force expose them to more interracial social situations and hence increase their chances of marrying outside of their subgroup.

The aforementioned factors have been influential in creating a high rate of intermarriage in the Asian subgroups, as detailed below and shown in Table C-3.

Japanese

One-third of all married Japanese women have married outside of their ethnic group. 43% of the women 25-44 years old and 46% of the women 16-24 years old are married to non-Japanese (see Table C-3). The rate of intermarriage decreases to 16% for those women 45 years old and over. Many of the women in the 16-44 age groups are the post-World War II Japanese wives of American servicemen--large numbers of whom came to this country since the 1950's.

Local data show that the rate of marriage within their own ethnic group is higher for both Japanese men and women in Hawaii than elsewhere in the country. In that state, Japanese are the largest single minority group (36%).

Table C-3

Marriage Within Own Subgroup by Sex, 1970

Percent of all Married Persons with a Spouse of Same Ethnic/ Racial Group		U.S. Total	Asian Americans		
			Japanese	Chinese	Pilipinos
Total 16 & Over:	Male	99%	88%	87%	67%
	Female	99	67	88	72
16-24 Yrs:	Male	NA	62	59	51
	Female	NA	54	72	50
25-44 Yrs:	Male	NA	84	84	72
	Female	NA	57	87	72
45 Years & Over:	Male	NA	93	90	63
	Female	NA	84	93	88

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1 Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

On the other hand, in those areas outside Hawaii and California where the Japanese population is not as concentrated, the rate of marriage within the subgroup decreases.

Table C-4

Japanese Marriage Within Subgroup,

By Selected Areas

		Hawaii	Calif.	U.S., except Hawaii & Calif.
% Married to Japanese Spouse (16 years of age and over)	Males	92%	90%	77%
	Females	85	71	42

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

Outside Hawaii and California, only 42% of the married Japanese women have Japanese spouses. Only one-third of those women 25-44 years old and married have Japanese husbands. Many of these women are first generation immigrants who came to the U.S. with American husbands--some 72% of all Japanese women in this age group outside Hawaii and California are of foreign birth.

Chinese

The overall rate of marriage by Chinese to a spouse of the same subgroup is higher than that of other Asian groups. 87% of all Chinese men and 88% of Chinese women have married within their group. However, broken out by age, the data show that mixed marriages have increased markedly among the younger Chinese population.

While over 90% of Chinese 45 years of age and over are married to persons of their own race, only about 60% of the males and 70% of females, 16-24 years old, are.

The local data show that there is a higher rate of marriage outside the subgroup among Chinese in Hawaii compared to the rates in California or New York:

Table C-5

Chinese Marriage Within Subgroup,

by Selected Areas

		Hawaii	Calif.	New York State
Total (16 yrs. old and Over)	Male:	69%	90%	92%
	Female:	70	91	96
16-24	Male:	38	70	96
	Female:	39	78	88
25-44	Male:	58	87	92
	Female:	66	89	96
45 & Over	Male:	79	95	93
	Female:	78	96	98

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

In Hawaii, 62% of males and 61% of females who are 16-24 years old and married are married to spouses of a different race. In California and New York, the rate of marriage outside the group is lower.

Pilipinos

The rate of interracial marriages involving Pilipinos is quite high with 33% of the males and 28% of the females married to non-Pilipinos. Among the men, the Pilipinos have the highest rate of intermarriage for any Asian group. Among women, the rate is the second highest (the rate for Japanese women being the highest).

For Pilipinos, the rates of intermarriage are highest among young persons 16-24 years old. In this age group, only half of all males and females who are married have spouses of the same ethnic group.

The rate of intermarriage is also high among older Pilipino men. 37% of all Pilipino males over 45 years of age are married to women of another ethnic/racial group. The high rate is primarily a consequence of there being few Pilipino women in the United States until recently. Until immigration laws loosened 1/ allowing the men to bring back Pilipino wives, Pilipino men in the United States could only find a wife among women from other groups. 2/

Table C-6 below provides data on rates of marriage within the subgroup for Pilipinos of all ages in selected areas.

Table C-6

Pilipino Marriage Within Subgroup by Selected Areas

		Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	U.S., except Hawaii & Calif.
% Married to Spouse of Same Ethnic/ Racial Group (16 & over)	Male	71%	68%	64%	59%
	Female	82	75	72	61

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

1/ Now it is not uncommon in Pilipino families to find husbands in their fifties and sixties married to Pilipino wives thirty to forty years their junior.

2/ Although at times there were miscegenation laws preventing Pilipinos from marrying white women, the laws were applicable only to whites and did not forbid Pilipinos to marry Japanese, Chinese, Mexican Americans, or Blacks.

The rates of intermarriage for both men and women are particularly high in areas outside Hawaii and California where the Pilipino population is dispersed. Because of the U.S. military presence in the Philippine Islands, there has also been a continuing number of marriages between Pilipino women and U.S. servicemen or other Americans, and these Pilipino wives now live in the widely scattered areas of the U.S.

Origin of Spouse

The distribution of ethnic groups with which Asians have intermarried is shown in Table C-7. By far the majority of marriages have occurred between whites and Asians. Among Asian males who have intermarried, a number have also married women from one of the two other Asian races. In the Pilipino population, a substantial proportion of both males and females are married to spouses of Spanish origin.

Primary Individuals

In the U.S., 20% of all heads of households live alone as primary individuals. Of these, 63% are female and 37% are male. A high proportion of these primary individuals (43%) are elderly persons and since women tend to outlive men, they dominate the population of primary individuals.

In the three major Asian American populations, the proportion of primary individuals is about the same as that found among households in the total population. 21% of both Japanese and Pilipino households and 22% of Chinese households contain only one person.

However, the sex ratios and age distributions of persons living alone in the Asian American populations differ markedly from those of the total population. The primary individuals in the Asian American populations tend to be younger than those in the total population. While 75% of all primary individuals are 45 years old or over, only 58% of Pilipino primary individuals; 50% of Japanese primary individuals; and 47% of Chinese primary individuals are at this age level. Table C-8 shows the age distribution of primary individuals in these Asian subgroups and in the U.S. total population.

Table C-7

Asian Americans Marrying Outside Own Subgroup by Origin of Spouse, 1970

	Origin of Spouse				
	% Other Asian	% White*	% Spanish Origin	% Black	% Other**
Origin of Wife					
Japanese	8%	81%	4%	3%	4%
Chinese	18	59	8	3	13
Pilipino	7	54	22	7	9
Origin of Husband					
Japanese	14%	65%	8%	1%	12%
Chinese	25	49	12	3	11
Pilipino	12	42	30	3	12

* Not including Spanish Origin

** Includes Asians who are not Japanese, Chinese or Pilipinos; American Indians, etc.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Marital Status, PC(2)-4C.

Table C-8

Primary Individuals by Age: 1970

(16 Years Old and Over)

Age Group	U.S. Total	Japanese	Chinese	Pilipino
16-19	1%	1%	1%	1%
20-24	6	12	14	9
25-34	10	21	25	22
35-44	8	16	13	10
45-64	32	25	26	32
65 & over	43	25	21	26

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G

Several factors may contribute to the greater presence of younger Asian American primary individuals. In the Japanese and Chinese populations, which have a high rate of young persons enrolled in advanced education (see Education Section), some students tend to delay marriage and the setting up of families--thereby increasing the proportion of younger primary individuals. Additionally, in all three Asian subgroups, there are recent immigrants who came to the United States alone, leaving relatives and families behind in Asia.

One out of every five elderly persons in the three Asian American subgroups lives alone. 18% of all Japanese; 21% of all Chinese; and 23% of all Pilipino persons who are 65 years old or over are primary individuals.

Among Asian American primary individuals, the predominance of females does not occur except among elderly

Japanese. Chinese and Pilipino male primary individuals (all age groups combined) outnumber females two-to-one. One of the reasons for this reversal of the U.S. pattern is that, until recently, the immigration barriers prevented large-scale entry of Asian women.

Among Japanese primary individuals (all age groups combined) the ratio of males to females is almost equal. Two-thirds of all elderly Japanese primary individuals, however, are women. As in the total population, many Japanese women who have outlived their husbands are left on their own in their old age. For reasons already mentioned, in the Chinese and Pilipino populations the elderly who live alone are mostly male.

Table C-9

Primary Individuals, 65 Years Old or Over, by Sex: 1970*

	U.S. Total	Japanese	Chinese
% Male	25%	33%	61%
% Female	75	67	39

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1 Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-1A

*Data on Pilipinos are not available.

In local areas (see Table C-1) the proportion of Asian household heads of any age who live alone varies. For the Japanese, the percentage of primary individuals drops to only 14% in Hawaii compared to 21% for the Japanese nationally. One factor may be that the Japanese population in Hawaii has been in residence for a number of generations. The resulting continuity in family structure may provide for strong extended family relationships so that fewer Japanese in the state live by themselves. In contrast to the low percentage of Japanese primary individuals in Hawaii, 22% of all household heads in California and 29% in the other states are in this category.

For the Chinese, the drop in number of primary individuals for the State of Hawaii is even more dramatic. Only 12% of

the Chinese household heads there live without their relatives, while the average for Chinese in the whole country is 22%. For the Chinese in Hawaii, the same factors are involved since the Chinese population in Hawaii also extends for several generations.

The ratio of males to females in the Chinese primary individual population in Hawaii is almost equal. In contrast, in San Francisco the male-to-female ratio is nearly two to one and in New York, nearly three to one. The unbalanced sex ratios in the two cities are the result of early immigration barriers preventing the Chinese males from bringing wives and families with them into the United States. The ratio is maintained to some extent as some recent male immigrants have entered the country alone to establish an economic base before bringing their families over.

For Pilipinos, the largely male primary individual population is especially accentuated in Hawaii and in rural U.S. where, in both places, males living alone outnumber females living alone by nine to one (see Chart C-a). In both areas, these persons are middle aged or elderly; 83% in Hawaii and 90% in rural U.S. are 45 years old and over.

In contrast, in the urban areas outside of Hawaii and California there are nearly the same number of Pilipino males and females living alone. Of these, a mere 37% are 45 years old or over indicating that in these areas the majority of Pilipinos who live outside of a family situation are younger.

Size and Composition of Families

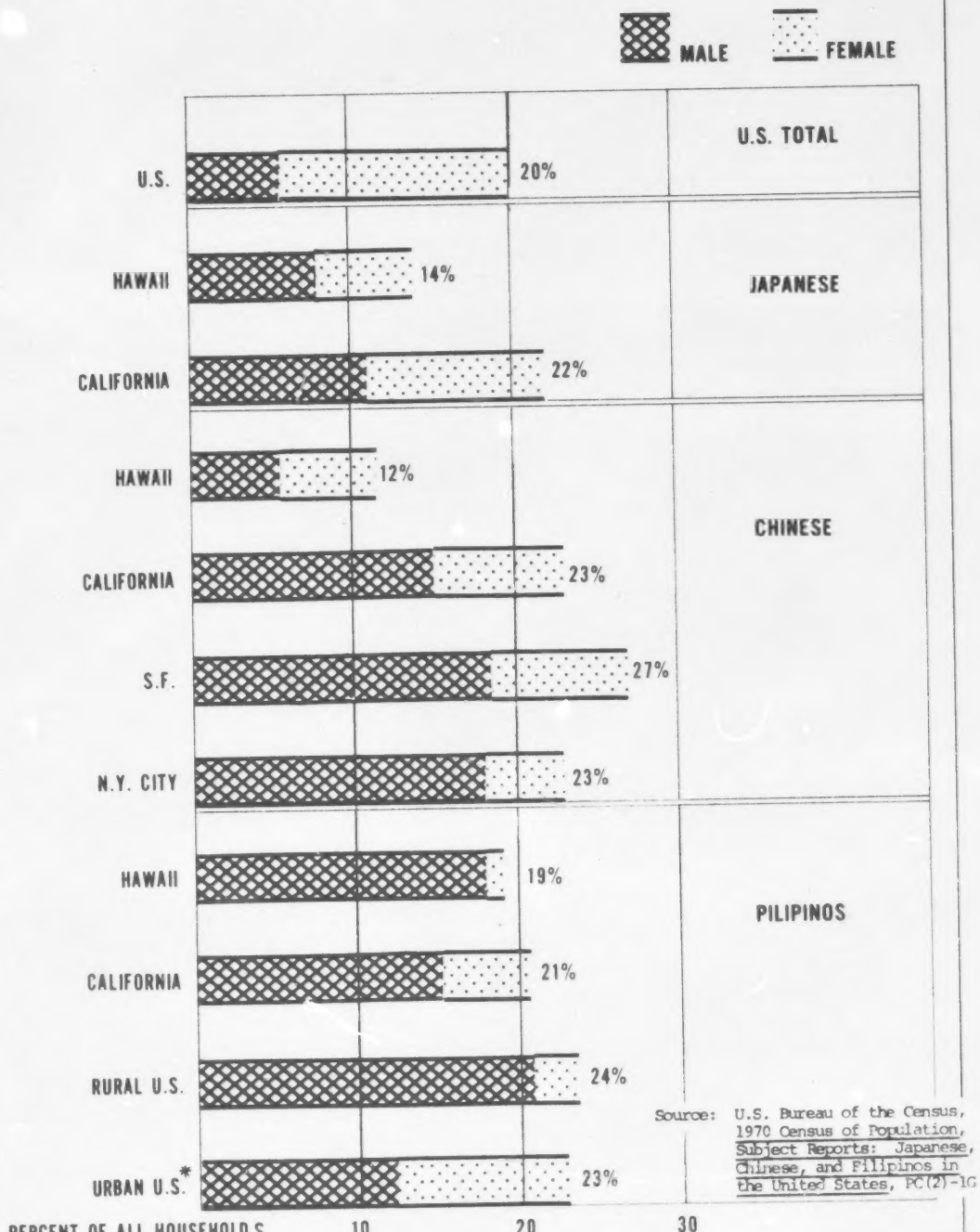
Japanese

Among families in the three largest Asian American populations, Japanese families are, on the average, the smallest. Compared with the average size of families in the entire U.S., however, Japanese families are slightly larger. In the U.S., 25% of all families consist of five or more persons while among the Japanese, 27% of all families are this large. The average white family in the United States contained 3.5 persons while the average Japanese family contained 3.7 persons.

Japanese families have fewer young children, however. In 1970, only 18% of all Japanese families included three or more children under 18 as opposed to 20% of all families in the U.S. as a whole. For the Japanese, this represents

CHART C-a

PRIMARY INDIVIDUALS AMONG ASIAN AMERICAN SUB-GROUPS IN LOCAL AREAS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

*Except in Hawaii and California

a sizeable drop from the previous decade as, in 1960, almost a quarter of all Japanese families in this country had this many children. 1/

The fact that the Japanese family tends to be larger than average U.S. families is due to extended family relationships; that is the presence of adult relatives such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc. Table C-10 illustrates, nationally, the greater presence of extended families among the three Asian subgroups compared to the total U.S. population. While 12% of all families are extended families, among the Japanese, 16% are. 11% of all Japanese families contain three or more generations living together compared to only 7% in the total population.

The differential between the percentage of families with five or more members and the percentage with three or more young children under 18 is a rough index of the degree to which there are adult relatives other than the parents in families.2/ It is an indication of extended families although not a direct measure of the same. Nationally for the Japanese, the proportion of families with five or more members is 9% higher than the proportion of families with at least three children. In the U.S. total population, however, the differential between the two rates is only 5%.

In Hawaii where the lower proportion of Japanese primary individuals had suggested that more persons were living in family households, the differential between family size and the number of children is up to 13%, three times the U.S. norm.

Chinese

Chinese families tend to be larger than either Japanese families or families in the U.S. in general. While a quarter of all families in the U.S. consist of five or more members, 35% of Chinese families are as large. The average Chinese family contains 4.0 persons compared to 3.5 persons among white families. The proportion of Chinese families containing three or more children (23%) is slightly higher than for the total U.S. as well (20%) although,as with Japanese families, Chinese families in 1970 contained fewer children than they had in the previous decade. In 1960, 28% of all Chinese families in this country contained three or more children. 3/

The proportion of young persons 18 years old or under in the total Chinese population is still less than for the

1/ U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race. op. cit.

2/ A traditional five-member family consisting of two parents and three under-18 year old children.

3/ U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, op. cit.

Table C-10

Family Composition: Summary, 1970

Ethnicity of Head	Total	Nuclear Families			Extended Families		
		Total	Without Children	With Children	Total	3-4 generation linear family, including grandchildren or parents of head	Families only with relatives other than grandchildren or parents of head (brothers, sisters, etc)
U.S. Total	100%	88%	29%	59%	12%	7%	5%
Japanese	100%	84	21	63	16	11	5
Chinese	100%	82	19	63	18	11	7
Pilipinos	100%	77	17	60	23	10	13

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Family Composition, PC(2)-4A, Table 32

U.S. population because there are more adults in the population--some living outside a family situation as primary individuals and some living in families as part of an extended household.

A comparison of the differentials between the number of families with three or more children and families with five or more members in 1960 and 1970 shows that during the decade there has been some increase in the percentage of Chinese extended families. In 1960, there was a differential of 9% 1/ and by 1970 the differential was up to 12%. In 1970, 18% of all Chinese families were extended families, 1 1/2 times greater than in the total population (see Table C-10). 11% of Chinese families contained 3 or more generations--the same proportion as in the Japanese population and 4% more than in the U.S. total population.

The increase comes about as more Chinese become elderly and live with adult offspring. Also as new immigrants have arrived, they have tended to move in with relatives who are already settled in this country.

As with the Japanese, the differential is even greater in Hawaii (14%) where long-term residence has provided for greater family continuity among Asian subgroups.

Among the Chinese in urban New York State, the proportion of large extended families is just as high. Here new immigrants with meager incomes, arriving in an area of inadequate housing, are more likely to join the households of other relatives.

Pilipinos

Of families in the three major Asian subgroups, Pilipino families are largest. 38% of all Pilipino families contain five or more members and 28% contain three or more children. The average Pilipino family contains 4.2 persons, 0.7 more than among white families.

Of the three Asian subgroups, Pilipino families have the highest proportion containing other adult relatives. 23% of all Pilipino families are extended families, nearly twice the proportion for the total U.S. population and far higher than either Japanese or Chinese families (see Table C-10). Of these extended Pilipino families, more than half (13%) are non-linear containing siblings, cousins or other such relatives of the head

1/ U.S. Census of the Population: 1960, Subject Reports: Non-white Population by Race, op. cit.

but not containing three or more generations with grandparents. These non-linear extended families are formed, perhaps, as Pilipinos (some of them recent immigrants) move in with relatives.

At the same time, the proportion of Pilipino families that do contain three or more generations (10%) is nearly as great as in the Japanese and Chinese populations. Many of these latter families are probably in the State of Hawaii where the differential between the number of families with 5 or more members and families with 3 or more children is up to 16%, over three times greater than for the U.S. as a whole. Pilipino families are largest in Hawaii where the population has been in residence over a lengthy period of time. Just under half of all Pilipino families in that state contain five or more persons, nearly twice the proportion that exists in the total U.S. population. The average Pilipino family in Hawaii contains 4.8 persons.

The differential between families with five or more persons and three or more children is 10% in California, is lower than in Hawaii, but still twice the differential among families in the total U.S. population. However, the differential among Pilipino families in urban areas outside Hawaii and California is down to 6%, only 1% greater than the rate for the total U.S. population. In these areas, Pilipino families are also much smaller. Only 30% of the Pilipino families in these areas contain 5 or more persons compared with 38% for all Pilipinos nationally. The Pilipino population outside Hawaii and California is widely scattered and, apparently, fewer persons are concentrated in large families.

III. D. EDUCATION CHARACTERISTICS

This section analyzes such educational characteristics as mother tongue other than English; schooling completed; and enrollment of each of the principal Asian American subgroups: Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipino. Local data on education are presented in Table D-3.

Mother Tongue Other Than English

The proportion of adults in an ethnic population who still speak their native Asian language can only be ascertained indirectly by data on mother tongue which, according to Census definition, refer to the language spoken by persons in their homes when they were children.

In 1970, 62% of Japanese, 76% of Chinese and 64% of Pilipinos had retained their respective Asian languages as their mother tongue. The rates of mother tongue retention within each nativity category and the rates of loss from generation to generation are about the same for the Japanese and the Chinese subgroups (see Table D-1). Because there is a higher percentage of Japanese whose parents were born in the U.S. (presumably third and fourth generations living in America), the overall rate of retention of Japanese as mother tongue by the total Japanese population in this country is expectedly lower than the rate of Chinese mother tongue retention by all Chinese in this country. However, the rate for Japanese who have resided for three or more generations in the U.S. is remarkably high (28%) and is even higher (1%) than the rate for Chinese who have been in the U.S. an equal length of time.

The high proportion of persons with their Asian language as a mother tongue is indicative of the extent to which facility with the English language will continue to be a major problem in the Asian communities. Moreover, there continues to be an influx of new immigrants for whom mastering English is particularly difficult.

Table D-1

Chinese, Japanese, and Pilipinos

Speaking Own Ethnic Language as Mother Tongue, 1970

Asian-American Subgroup	Total		Native of Native Parents		Native of Foreign or Mixed Parents		Foreign-Born	
	Number Speaking Ethnic Language as Mother Tongue	% of Total Sub-Group Population	Number Speaking Ethnic Language as Mother Tongue	% of all Native of Native Parents	Number Speaking Ethnic Language as Mother Tongue	% of all Native of F. or M.P.	Number Speaking Ethnic Language as Mother Tongue	% of all F.B.
Japanese	366,134	62	71,404	28	181,090	87	113,640	93
Chinese	328,573	76	24,736	27	118,574	87	185,263	91
Pilipino*	217,907	64	8,336	17	57,073	52	152,498	71

* Data here refer only to use of Tagalog as Pilipino-Ethnic Language, as data are not available on other Pilipino dialects such as Visayan, Pampanga, Ilacano, Gaddang, etc.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary (PC(1)-D1) and Subject Report: National Origin and Language (PC(2)-1).

Among the Pilipinos in this country, an even greater proportion (96%) are either foreign born or native born with foreign-born parents. Yet, data show that only 64% of U.S. Pilipinos speak the Pilipino national language as a mother tongue, a much lower proportion than might be expected. A probable explanation for this discrepancy is that, while the mother tongue referenced in Table D-1 is Tagalog (the official national language of the Philippines) many other dialects are also spoken in that country. 1/ 2/ Thus it is probable that a considerable number of the non-Tagalog-speaking Pilipinos utilize a native dialect other than English. Consequently, the dimensions of the language barrier for Pilipinos in the U.S. are probably greater than these statistics indicate.

1/ The use of a Pilipino language other than Tagalog is particularly evident in the State of Hawaii where the majority of Pilipinos use the Ilocano dialect.

2/ While the Chinese population in this country also includes speakers of many distinct dialects, almost all of them are included under the designation "Chinese language."

Mother Tongue of Children

Data on mother tongue of children (the language they are speaking in their homes) are only available for first and second generation Japanese and Chinese under 14 years of age. This is shown in the table below:

Table D-2

Mother Tongue of Children Under 14 Years of Age: 1970

	Japanese	Chinese
% Foreign Born	6%	19%
% Foreign Born Speaking a Mother Tongue Other than English	91%	96%
% Second Generation	56%	61%
% Second Generation Speaking a Mother Tongue Other than English	49%	70%

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
Subject Reports: National Origin and Language PC(2)-1A
Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G
Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary PC (1)-D1

The data show that among both first and second generation Asian children, significant proportions are still speaking Asian languages in their homes. 91% of all Japanese foreign-born children and 96% of all Chinese foreign-born children under 14 years old are speaking their Asian languages at home. 1/ Nearly half the second generation Japanese children and 70% of the second generation Chinese children do.

Schooling Completed

It is generally assumed that many of the persons who have not gone beyond an elementary school education are virtually illiterate. This is particularly true of the disadvantaged, for whom eight years of schooling is, at a maximum, only equvalent to six years of education for the rest of the population. For Asians immigrating to the United States as adults, lack of schooling may also mean a lack of any previous training in English in their native country. The years of schooling completed by persons 16 years old and over 2/ in each of the three Asian subgroups are shown in Chart D-a.

1/ Included are a small percentage whose mother tongues are neither English nor the language of their country of origin (some Chinese children had Japanese as a mother tongue for example) as well as a small percentage who were infants and had not yet begun to use any language.

2/ In many instances, a particular piece of data on schooling completed is only available on persons 16 years ol and over or on persons 25 years old and over. The age groupings used in this section reflect those variations. Usually, little difference exists between the educational attainments of the total population 16 and over and 25 and over as the following table illustrates:

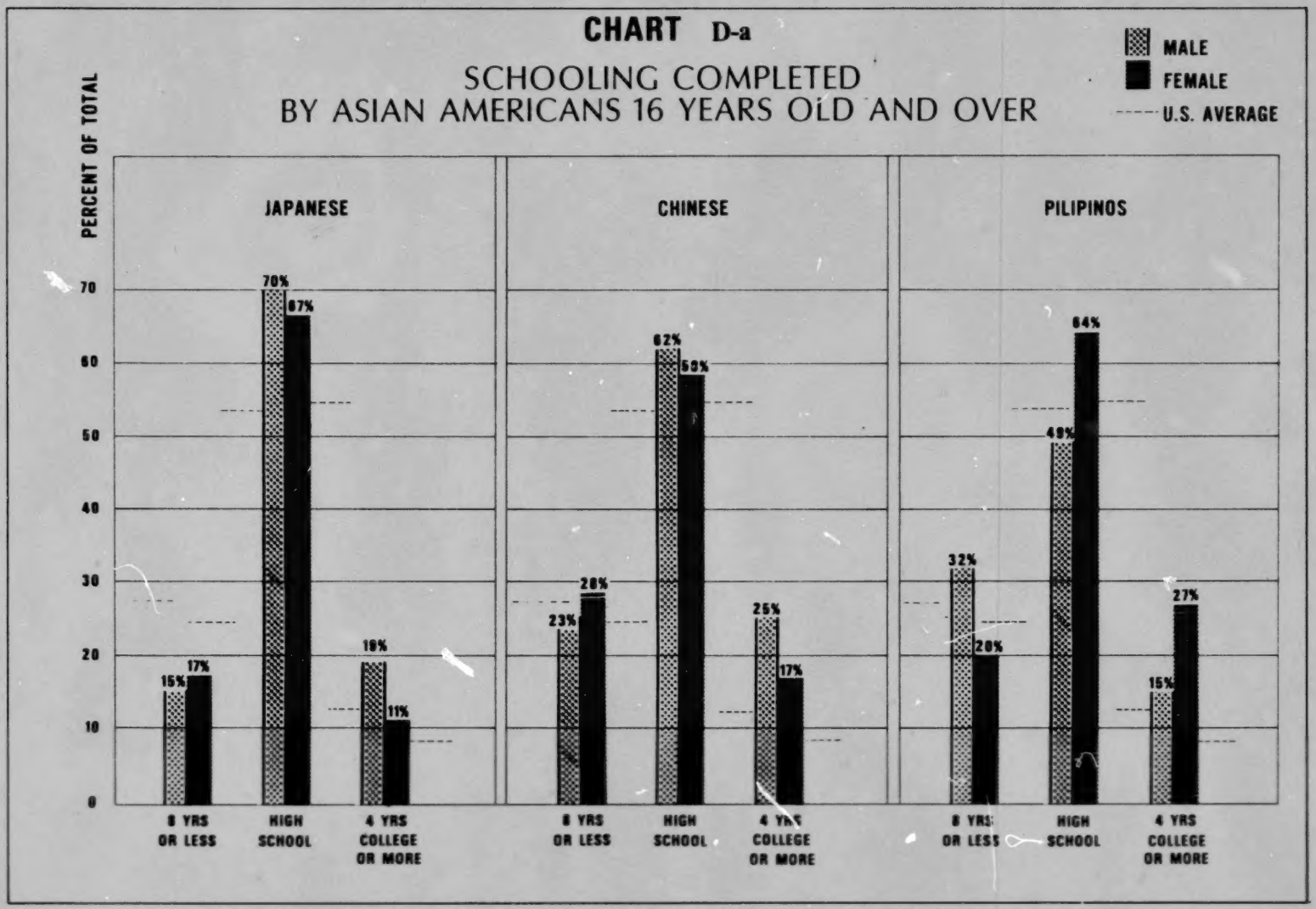
Median Years of Schooling for Total Population

	Persons 25 and Over	Persons 16 and Over
U. S. Total	12.1 Yrs.	12.1 Yrs.
Japanese	12.5	12.5
Chinese	12.4	12.5
Pilipino	12.2	12.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census, 1970 Census of Population Detailed Characteristics PC(1)-D1, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G.

CHART D-a

SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY ASIAN AMERICANS 16 YEARS OLD AND OVER



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Japanese

The percentage of Japanese American men who have had only an elementary school education or less (15%) is just over half of the U.S. male norm (27%). Of all Japanese males 16 and above, 70% have finished high school and 19% have completed college--figures well above the U.S. averages of 54% and 13% respectively.

Data on median years of education present an overall picture of the educational attainment of Japanese American men. Here, however, the median is lower than might be anticipated. Japanese males 16 and over have a median 12.6 years of schooling (see Table D-3). This is above the U. S. average, but only by 0.5 years. The fact that the median is not higher reflects the fact that although the overall educational attainment level of the Japanese is higher than for the total population, there are a substantial number of Japanese males without an advanced education.

As with the males, the percentage of Japanese females with 8 or less years of schooling (17%) is smaller than the U. S. female norm (25%). The 8% difference, however, is not as great as the 12% gap between percentages of uneducated U. S. males and Japanese males. The percentage of Japanese females completing college (11%) is greater than the percentage for U. S. females as a whole (8%) but the differential is only half what it is between Japanese males and U. S. males. Moreover, the percentage of Japanese women with a college education is lower than the percentage among the other two Asian subgroups. While 11% of all Japanese women have completed college, about 17% of Chinese women and 27% of Pilipino women have.

The median level of educational attainment among Japanese American women is 12.4 years, 0.2 years below the figure for men, although the medians for males and females in the total U. S. are the same.

The educational attainment of the elderly Japanese are much lower. Japanese males 65 years old and over have only had 8.5 years of schooling. Depending on the Census source, the median years of schooling of elderly Japanese women ranges from 7.5 years to 8.3 years.

The educational attainment of Japanese who are foreign born (in all age groups) is similar to those born in the U. S. The total median years of schooling by foreign-born Japanese 25 years old and over is 12.3 years compared to 12.5 years for all Japanese. A comparison of education attained by both the first generation and second generation Japanese in the United States in 1970 is shown in Table D-4.

Table D-3

Educational Characteristics of the U.S. Total and Asian American Populations, 1970

	U.S. Total	Japanese				Chinese					Pilipino				
		U.S.	Hawaii	Calif	Other	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F. M&F	N.Y.C. M&F	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	Urban
Schooling Completed (16 Yrs of Age or Older)															
Males: % 8 Yrs. Schooling or Less	27	15	20	10	13	23	17	22	47*	49*	32	50	31	55	17**
% High School Graduates	54	70	63	74	73	62	66	64	57	44	49	32	49	27	67
% 4 Yrs. College or More	13	19	11	20	30	25	18	21	12	15	15	3	12	5	29
Median Schooling (yrs)	12.1	12.6	12.3	12.8	12.8	12.6	12.5	12.7	10.1	9.2	11.9	9.0	11.9	8.0	14.8
Females: % 8 Yrs. Schooling or less	25	17	24	12	14	28	21	29	* -	* -	20	32	17	35	14
% High School Graduates	55	67	60	74	69	58	64	58	-	-	64	47	65	45	73
% 4 Yrs. College or More	8	11	9	11	13	17	13	13	-	-	27	6	23	9	44
Median Schooling (yrs)	12.1	12.4	12.3	12.6	12.4	12.3	12.4	12.3	-	-	12.6	11.5	12.6	11.3	13.3
Enrollment in School															
Total % Enrolled 3 - 34 Yrs. Old	54	59	60	61	54	62	62	65	64	57	46	55	50	52	30**
% 3 - 4 Yrs. Old	14	31	32	29	29	24	27	24	27	19	15	15	14	12	15
% 18-24 Yrs. Old: Male	37	56	47	64	55	71	46	76	69	64	28	25	33	21	23
Female	27	48	46	53	45	58	44	62	56	48	23	24	27	18	20

*Data on schooling completed are available only for persons 25 years and over, male and female combined.

**Data only available for urban and rural U.S. without California or Hawaii.
***Except urban California and urban Hawaii.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Table D-4

Median Years Schooling of Japanese by Sex, Age, and Nativity

(25 Years Old and Over)

	Total	25-44	45-64	65 & Over
Males:				
U. S. Born *	12.6	12.9	12.4	8.6
Foreign Born	12.6	16+	12.5	8.5
Females:				
U. S. Born *	12.5	12.8	12.2	7.8
Foreign Born	12.2	12.5	12.3	7.4

*Second generation only. Separate educational data on Japanese of third and fourth generations are not available.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census Subject Reports: National Origin and Language PC(2)-1A

The median years of schooling for all second generation U. S.-born males and first generation foreign-born males is the same. The median years of schooling for Japanese men of foreign birth, 25-44 years of age, however, is exceptionally high, probably reflecting the high proportion of professionals among recent Japanese immigrants (see Employment Section). Also included in this category would be a certain proportion of non-immigrants--Japanese in this country temporarily as students or businessmen who, nevertheless, are enumerated in the 1970 Census.

The median years of schooling had by all Japanese women of foreign birth, 12.2 years, is 0.3 years lower than the median of second generation Japanese women. An age break-out reveals that the lag in schooling occurs both among younger Japanese women 25-44 years old and among older ones 65 years old and over.

Local data show marked differences between the educational attainment of Japanese in Hawaii and in California, in that the latter are better educated. In Hawaii, 20% of the males have had little schooling, while in California only 10% have had this little education. Of the females in Hawaii, 24% have had an 8th grade education or less (close to the U. S. average of 25%), while only 12% in California are so uneducated.

Of all Japanese males in California, 20% have four years or more college, while only 11% of the Hawaiian Japanese males do (less than the U. S. average of 13%). Of Japanese females in California, 11% have graduated from college, while only 9% in Hawaii have (only 1% above the U. S. average). Education has apparently not been as emphasized by the Japanese in Hawaii as might have been expected.

Chinese

The Chinese present a disparate picture of extraordinarily high educational attainments, coupled with a significantly large population of uneducated. The percentage of Chinese American men who have had only an elementary school education or less (23%) is slightly lower proportionally than the U. S. average (27%). Fully a quarter of Chinese males, 16 or older, have obtained their college degrees--double the U. S. average (13%) and the highest proportion for any ethnic group in the U. S. The Chinese American male median years of school completed is exactly the same as that of the Japanese, 12.6. This is lower than might be expected and is presumably due to the greater weights at both ends of the scale.

Among the women, a very different picture appears. The percentage of females of Chinese origin who did not enter high school (28%) is much larger than that of women in the other two Asian American groups and 3% greater than the U. S. female average (25%). Where there was emphasis on education for the Chinese, traditionally, it was meant more for males than females and many elderly Chinese females have had no education at all--resulting in a high rate of illiteracy among elderly Chinese women. Of Chinese women, 65 and older, 78% have had eight or less years of schooling compared to 70% of all males in the same age group. The median years of schooling for foreign-born elderly Chinese women is less than 1 year (0.9 years) while the median for foreign-born elderly men is up to 6.2 years (see Table D-5).

Table D-5

Median Years Schooling of Chinese by Sex, Age and Nativity: 1970

	Total	25-44	45-64	65 & Over
Males:				
U.S. Born*	12.7	14.5	12.4	7.7
Foreign Born	12.4	15.4	10.2	6.2
Females:				
U.S. Born*	12.7	13.1	12.4	9.1
Foreign Born	10.6	12.5	7.5	0.9

* Only second generation Chinese are included; no separate educational data on Chinese of third and fourth generations are available.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-1A.

Chinese women have had a median 12.3 years of education, 0.2 years above the U. S. median. The median for second generation Chinese women is 12.7 while the median for foreign-born Chinese women is only 10.6 years.

As in the case of the males, the percentage of Chinese women who have obtained their college degrees is twice that of U. S. female norms. However, the gap between the Chinese male and female levels (8% difference) shows once again that the Chinese (as well as the U. S. in general) have had a bias toward providing higher education for their males rather than their females.

Just under half of the Chinese in San Francisco and New York City have not gone beyond elementary school compared to only 26% of all persons in the U.S. population with this little schooling. In New York's Chinatown, the fastest growing Chinese community in the U.S. today, the median schooling completed by males, 25 years old and above, is only 8.0 years and the median schooling by females is only 6.8 years, indicating the likelihood of continuing problems as these new undereducated immigrants attempt to maintain themselves in the labor market. 1/

12% of the Chinese in San Francisco and 15% of the Chinese in New York City have completed at least 4 years of college. Although these rates are greater than the total U.S. average (11%), these rates are far lower than the rate of Chinese who have graduated from college nationally. 2/

Pilipinos

The educational attainment of the Pilipinos in the U. S. presents a very different pattern from that of the Chinese and Japanese. Many of the earlier (mostly male) Pilipino immigrants had had very little formal schooling. As a result, about one-third of all Pilipino men have had only an eighth grade education or less, 5% higher than the U. S. average.

1/ U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population Tabulations for "Operation Leap" (unpublished).

2/ 25% of the Chinese males, and 17% of the Chinese females, 16 years old and over, have completed college nationally.

Table D-6 below shows the median schooling obtained by Pilipinos of different age groups. The median schooling completed by Pilipino males 65 years old and over is only 5.4 years. 73% of all Pilipino men of this age have had eight or less years of education--more than double the total rate for the subgroup. Among men 45-64 years old, the percentage who have not gone beyond elementary school is, at 59%, still very high. The median years schooling for this age group is 7.9 years. In all, less than half of all Pilipino men (49%) have finished high school--a rate lower than the U. S. total (54%).

Table D-6

Median Years Schooling of Pilipinos by Sex and Age: 1970*

	Total	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-64	65 and Over
Males	11.9	12.0	13.1	12.7	7.9	5.4
Females	12.6	12.3	14.4	12.6	10.1	4.9

*1970 data contrasting education of foreign born with education of U.S. born are available for Japanese and Chinese populations, but not for Pilipino population.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in United States PC(2)-1G.

Local data show that problems of illiteracy and insufficient education are most acute in rural areas (where 55% of the Pilipino men have had eight or less years of school and only 27% have finished high school) and in Hawaii (where 50% have had eight or fewer years of education and only 32% finished high school). In contrast, only 17% of the men in the urban areas outside of Hawaii and California are undereducated (U. S. average is 27%), and 67% have finished high school (the U. S. average is only 54%).

These urban statistics reflect the large number of educated Pilipino male professionals who have recently immigrated to the country, causing a "brain drain" from the Philippines. Professionals with special skills have

been a preferred category of immigrant. Nationally, the percentage of Pilipino men who have completed college (15%) is slightly above the U. S. average (13%), despite the large number of uneducated males in the population. Predictably, in Hawaii and rural areas where there are few recent immigrants, the percentages of college-educated males (3% and 5%) are very low. In California, 12% of the males are college educated, a rate just under the average for the total population. Butin the urban areas outside of Hawaii and California, 29% of Pilipino males have completed college. This rate is higher than for males in any other subgroup, including the Chinese. The median schooling of males in these urban areas is up to 14.8 years, again a rate higher than that for any other group. 1/

Proportionally speaking, there are very few women in the Pilipino population in the United States who are elderly. A large proportion of the recently immigrating females are, like the males, highly educated professionals and they greatly outnumber the few elderly, less educated women in the Pilipino population. (The median years schooling completed by Pilipino women 65 years old or over is less than 5 years.) Because of this, in terms of the overall statistics the Pilipino female population is much better educated than the total Pilipino male population.

For example, compared with the men (and compared with women in every subgroup except the Japanese) there is a smaller percentage of Pilipino women who have not gone beyond the eighth grade (20%). 12% more Pilipino males than Pilipino females have had this little education.

Of the Pilipino women, 64% have completed high school--one of the highest of women in any subgroup and far higher than the 49% of Pilipino males who have completed high school.

Locally, in those areas where there are fewer newly immigrant Pilipino women, the women are not doing as well educationally. In Hawaii and rural areas, for example, about one-third of the women have not gone beyond the eighth grade and less than half have completed high school.

1/ Yet as data in Section E. Employment, show , only 18% of all Pilipino men working in the urban areas outside of Hawaii and California are employed in higher status professional and administrative occupations. The 11% gap between men with a college degree and men in higher status white-collar occupations suggests a considerable degree of underemployment among Pilipinos working in these areas.

Due to the presence of new immigrants, over the past decade the proportion of Pilipino women in the United States with a college education has more than doubled. In 1960, 13% of all Pilipino women were college educated 1/ and 10 years later, 27% were. In contrast, the proportion of Chinese women with college educations increased only 3%--from 14% to 17% and, for the Japanese (who have the lowest proportionof college educated women in their population), the proportion increased 4%, from 7% to 11% of all women.

Today, as far as percentages with college degrees are concerned, Pilipino women in the U. S. have no equal. The proportion of their group with at least four years of college is higher than for any other group, male or female. In urban areas outside of Hawaii and California, 44% of the women are college educated while, predictably, in Hawaii and rural areas the percentage drops to 6% and 9%, respectively--close to the U. S. average (8%) for women. The disparity emphasizes the flaws in dealing with national data on Pilipinos, which tend to obscure considerable differences that exist in population groups.

School Enrollment

Total 3-34 years old

In the U. S., 54% of all people 3-34 years old are enrolled in school (see Table D-3). Japanese and Chinese enrollment rates are much higher (59% and 62%) showing a continuing high emphasis on education.

But the enrollment rate for Pilipinos (46%) falls far short of the U. S. average. Despite the high percentage of Pilipinos who have already completed college, younger Pilipinos are not enrolled in school today at a rate that is duplicating those characteristics.

Local data show some variations as far as the enrollment of Asians are concerned. In general, enrollment

1/ U. S. Census of Population: 1960, Nonwhite Population by Race, Op. Cit.

figures are higher for the Asians living in Hawaii and California. (In those two respective states 60% and 61% of the Japanese; 62% and 65% of the Chinese; and 55% and 50% of the Pilipino 3-34 year olds are in school.) But enrollment figures outside these two states are much lower than the national averages for each group. Only 54% of the Japanese outside California and Hawaii are enrolled (this is down to the U. S. average level). Only 57% of the Chinese in New York City are enrolled (down 5% from the group's national rate), and only 30% of the Pilipinos in urban areas outside of Hawaii and California are enrolled. (Part of this considerable drop is, perhaps, due to the higher proportion of Pilipinos in the 3-34 year old age group outside Hawaii and California who are young, newly immigrant adults. They are far less likely to be enrolled than the children under 16 for whom education is mandatory.)

3-4 Year Olds

Over 30% of Japanese children, 3-4 years old, are in some type of preschool program. This is more than double the participation rate for the U.S. (14%) and well above the Chinese who at 24% are the next highest group. The rate of Pilipino 3-4 years old school enrollment (15%) is at about U.S. level and much lower than for the other two Asian subgroups.

Among the factors creating this higher enrollment rate are the very high labor force participation rate of Asian women (more than 50% of all Asian women 16 and over are in the labor force, compared with 41% in the total U. S.) and, relative availability of preschool programs in those areas where the Asian populations live.

Local data on enrollment of Asian 3-4 year olds are similar to their national rates, with one exception--the Chinese in New York City. Although the labor force participation rate of Chinese women in New York City (51%) is the same as that of Chinese women nationwide, only 19% of the preschool age children are in any kind of program, compared to 24% enrolled nationally and 27% enrolled in San Francisco. (These figures reflect the unavailability of programs locally, as only 16% of 3-4 year old children of all races in New York City are enrolled while 24% in San Francisco are.)

18-24 Year Olds

The enrollment of Asians 18 to 24 years old in school (the majority presumably in college) is shown graphically in Chart D-b. In all three Asian subgroups, the percentage of males enrolled outnumbers the percentage of females, bespeaking the continued preference for educating men. Among the Chinese, there is a 13% difference between the rates for males and females, which is far greater a difference than in any other group. (The difference between males and females in the U. S. is 9%.)

In a comparison of enrollment by the three Asian subgroups, the Chinese are strongly in the lead. 71% of Chinese males, 18-24 years old, are enrolled in school (for the entire U. S. the rate is only 37%). Although Chinese women are 13% behind the men, the 58% enrolled Chinese women represents a higher rate of enrollment than the men or women of any other ethnic subgroup (U. S. female total is 27%).

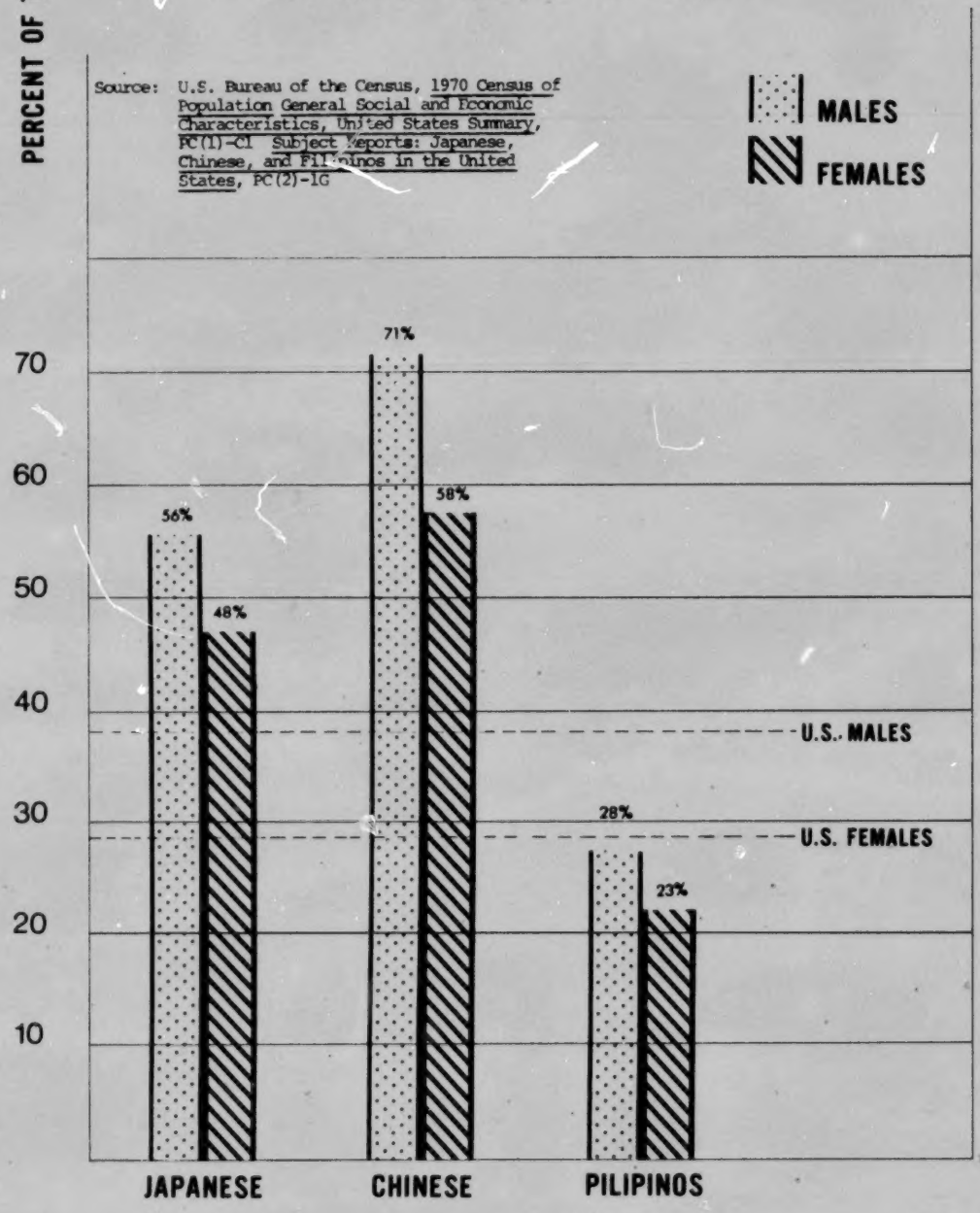
Local data on Chinese in Hawaii show that the enrollment rate for the post-high school age group falls to 46% for the males and 44% for the females. Significantly, although the rates are much lower than the national rates for Chinese, there is a greater drop among the males and the differential between males and females has evened out to a mere 2%. Enrollment rates in New York City (64% for males and 48% for females) are lower also, and here the differential between males and females is up to 16%. Enrollment rates in California among the Chinese are the highest of all, with 76% of the males and 62% of females in school--5% and 4% above the Chinese national averages.

The enrollment figures for young Japanese adults are, next to the Chinese, higher than any other ethnic group--with 56% of males and 48% of females enrolled. As with the Chinese, the rate of enrollment in Hawaii is lower for the Japanese, particularly for males (47% enrolled as compared to 56% enrolled nationally), and enrollment in California is particularly high (64% for males and 53% for females).

The enrollment rate of Pilipino 18 to 24 year olds falls below U. S. averages. Only 28% of males and 23%

CHART D-b

ENROLLMENT OF ASIAN AMERICANS, 18-24 YEARS OLD, IN SCHOOL



of females are in school, while the U. S. total rates are 37% and 27%. Pilipino young people, many of whom are second and third generation,are not getting as much advanced education as the rest of the country.

Other data show that these persons are, instead, entering the labor force at an earlier age and gaining employment in low-skilled jobs as service workers, machine operators, and, in the case of women, clerical workers. Locally, the enrollment rates of the Pilipinos are particularly low in rural areas (21% males and 18% females) and in urban areas outside Hawaii and California (23% and 20% respectively).

III. E. EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Asian American men and women in general have a high rate of participation in the labor force, 1/ with Japanese and Pilipino males in the United States having the highest rates; close to 80% of all the men 16 and over in these two groups (see Table E-2). The participation rate of Chinese males is only 73%, lower than the U. S. total rate of 77%. A possible reason for this lower participation by Chinese males is that they remain in school longer, entering the labor force at a later age. It is not until the Chinese male reaches the 35-44 year old age level that his labor force participation rate equals that of other Asians 2/ (see Table E-1 below).

Table E-1

Percent Asian American Males in Labor Force by Age: 1970

	20-24 Years	25-34 Years	35-44 Years
U.S. Total	81%	94%	95%
Pilipinos	88	94	95
Japanese	73	92	97
Chinese	58	87	96

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

1/ See Glossary for definition of "Labor Force Participation" and related terms. Labor force participants include both persons who are employed and persons who are unemployed.

2/ The assumption [illegible]ing made that most Chinese males who remain in school a[illegible]engaged in part-time work and thus are not in the labor fo[illegible]

Table E-2

Employment Characteristics of the U.S. Total and Asian American Populations, 1970

Employment Status (16 years and over)		U.S. Total	Japanese				Chinese					Pilipinos				
			U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Other	U. S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F.	N.Y.C.	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	Urban
% in Labor Force	Male	76.6	79.3	79.7	80.9	76.3	73.2	76.1	73.5	70.4	70.9	79.0	76.1	78.0	75.2	83.1 *
	Female	41.4	49.4	57.2	49.6	40.4	49.5	54.2	51.0	55.7	50.5	55.2	47.8	55.4	43.1	61.0
% Unemployed	Male	3.9	2.0	1.4	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.1	4.0	4.9	2.5	4.7	2.8	6.2	3.7	4.7
	Female	5.1	3.0	2.1	2.8	4.6	3.7	1.8	4.7	3.8	2.9	4.7	4.8	5.9	8.5	3.2
Major Occupations																
Professional & Tech. Workers	Male	14.3	21.3	14.0	24.0	30.4	28.9	21.7	25.8	15.0	16.9	18.1	4.6	12.6	5.9	41.9 **
	Female	15.7	15.9	15.9	15.3	16.7	19.4	19.1	15.2	8.0	12.6	31.8	7.9	20.9	13.1	54.5
Managers & Administrators	Male	11.2	11.7	12.4	10.4	12.8	11.4	14.1	11.3	9.5	9.5	3.1	2.9	3.2	1.6	3.1
	Female	3.6	3.8	4.3	3.2	3.8	3.8	5.5	3.5	3.1	3.4	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.3	1.4
Sales Workers	Male	6.9	6.0	6.0	5.9	6.2	4.4	6.5	5.4	5.9	4.5	2.1	2.0	2.2	1.1	1.9
	Female	7.4	6.9	9.1	5.3	5.7	5.1	9.1	5.5	5.3	3.4	3.7	8.0	3.3	5.8	2.0
Clerical Workers	Male	7.6	9.0	9.7	8.8	8.3	9.4	11.3	12.2	15.8	8.5	9.2	4.8	12.1	2.9	10.1
	Female	34.9	34.3	34.6	38.1	28.5	31.8	37.1	36.6	37.3	24.8	29.1	25.0	38.9	16.9	21.7
Craftsmen, Foremen & Kindred Workers	Male	21.2	19.7	30.2	12.7	13.1	7.3	19.5	7.8	9.2	4.5	13.1	22.3	9.2	12.7	8.3
	Female	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.2	1.2	1.9	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.0	1.9	0.8
Operatives	Male	19.5	10.3	11.4	9.2	10.1	10.5	9.2	11.2	12.6	16.1	14.3	20.2	12.1	15.8	10.6
	Female	14.3	13.5	9.9	14.0	18.4	22.5	8.0	23.0	30.8	46.2	10.8	14.5	12.7	11.8	7.0
Laborers, Except Farm	Male	6.6	9.9	6.4	16.4	5.3	3.3	5.2	4.0	3.5	1.8	8.2	14.0	6.1	7.9	4.6
	Female	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.1	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.6	0.6	2.3	0.4
Farm Managers & Laborers	Male	4.5	5.2	3.1	7.0	6.1	0.7	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.1	11.7	14.2	16.1	43.3	2.4
	Female	0.8	2.1	2.0	2.9	2.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.0	1.9	5.3	1.5	14.0	0.5
Service Workers	Male	8.1	6.6	6.7	5.6	7.8	24.0	11.4	21.1	28.2	38.1	20.3	15.1	26.5	8.9	16.9
	Female	20.4	20.8	21.9	18.4	22.4	14.8	17.8	13.6	13.2	7.2	19.2	33.8	19.3	32.1	11.6

*Except urban Hawaii and urban California

**U.S. Total minus urban and rural California and urban and rural Hawaii

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Compared to a decade ago, more Asian women are now going to work. 1/ In 1970, over half of all Asian women 16 years old and over in the U.S. were in the labor force, a far higher rate than for all women in the country (41%). In 1960, only 36% of Pilipino women were in the work force. In 1970, with a labor force participation rate of 55%, the participation rate for Pilipino women is the highest nationally for any group of women. In 1960, in both the Japanese and Chinese populations 44% of the women were in the labor force (higher rates than among all women in 1970). In 1970, however, the percentage for Japanese and Chinese women had increased to 50%. The biggest change since 1960 is the number of married women in the work force. The percentage of working wives in the Pilipino, Japanese, and Chinese populations in 1960 was low, at 9%, 12% and 13% respectively. In 1970, 46%, 51%, and 48% of the wives were in the work force.

Asian women in certain cities and states are working at a higher rate still. Of all Chinese women in San Francisco, 56% are in the labor force (two-thirds of these as clerical workers or machine operators). Of Japanese women in Hawaii, 57% are working (mostly as clerical workers, service workers, and professionals), and a remarkable 61% of the Pilipino women living in urban areas outside of Hawaii and California are in the work force (over half as professionals). The proportion of Japanese women working outside these two states, however, is much lower at only 40%; 1% below the rate for all women in the U. S. population.

An analysis of labor force participation rates of Japanese women in this country by nativity and age highlights considerable variations in labor force activity (See Table E-3). Of the 25% of all Japanese women 16 years old and over who were born outside the U. S., less than a third are in the labor force. In contrast, 57% of all U.S.-born Japanese women are in the labor force. The participation rates differ across all age groups.

1/ U S. Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, op. cit. PC(2)-1C

Table E-3

Percent Japanese and Chinese Women in the Labor Force by Nativity and Age

	Total (16 and Over)	16-24 Yrs. Old	25-44 Yrs. Old	45-64 Yrs. Old	65 and Over
All Women	41%	46%	47%	48%	10%
Japanese Women					
U. S. born*	57	51	63	65	13
Foreign born	32	33	37	48	11
Chinese Women					
U. S. born*	51	46	55	60	15
Foreign born	48	46	52	57	13

*Second generation only.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: National Origin and Language PC (2)-1[illegible].

In contrast, in the Chinese female population (data on Pilipino women are not available) the difference in labor force participation rates of foreign-born and U. S.-born women do not vary more than 3% in any age group.

Unemployment 1/

Among Asians, Pilipinos in 1970 had the highest unemployment rate; nearly 5% of both Pilipino men and women in the labor force were unemployed. This rate is 1% higher than the U. S. average for males (4%) and close to the national average for women (5%).

1/ See Glossary for a definition of "Unemployed".

The unemployment rates of Japanese and Chinese males (at 2% and 3% respectively) are lower than the U. S. average of men (4%), while the rates for Japanese and Chinese women (3% and 4%) are lower than the U. S. average for women (5%).

Occupations - Japanese

Males

In 1970, one-third of all working Japanese males in the United States were employed as professionals and managers, a higher rate than is found in the U. S. as a whole (25%) (see Chart E-a).

Almost another third (30%) of all Japanese men are employed as skilled or semi-skilled blue-collar workers (the craftsmen, foremen, and machine-operator work categories). While this is the largest occupational area for males in the U. S. as a whole, it has not been regarded as a major employment area for Asians. Yet 20% of all Japanese males are skilled blue-collar workers (close to the rate for all U. S. men so employed, 21%).

The percentage of Japanese in the various occupational categories varies markedly from place to place. In Hawaii, only 26% of males are in professional and managerial professions, a rate 7% lower than the national rate of Japanese. On the other hand, the percentage of Japanese men in the skilled occupations is particularly high in Hawaii (30% as compared to 21% for the U.S. population), where Asians, being the majority, are not faced with many of the discriminatory practices found elsewhere in skilled trades (only 13% of Japanese males in California and elsewhere in the U.S. are employed in skilled occupations).

Considerable differences exist between the occupational distribution of those Japanese males born in the United States and those born in Japan (see Table E-4). 45% of all employed

CHART E-a

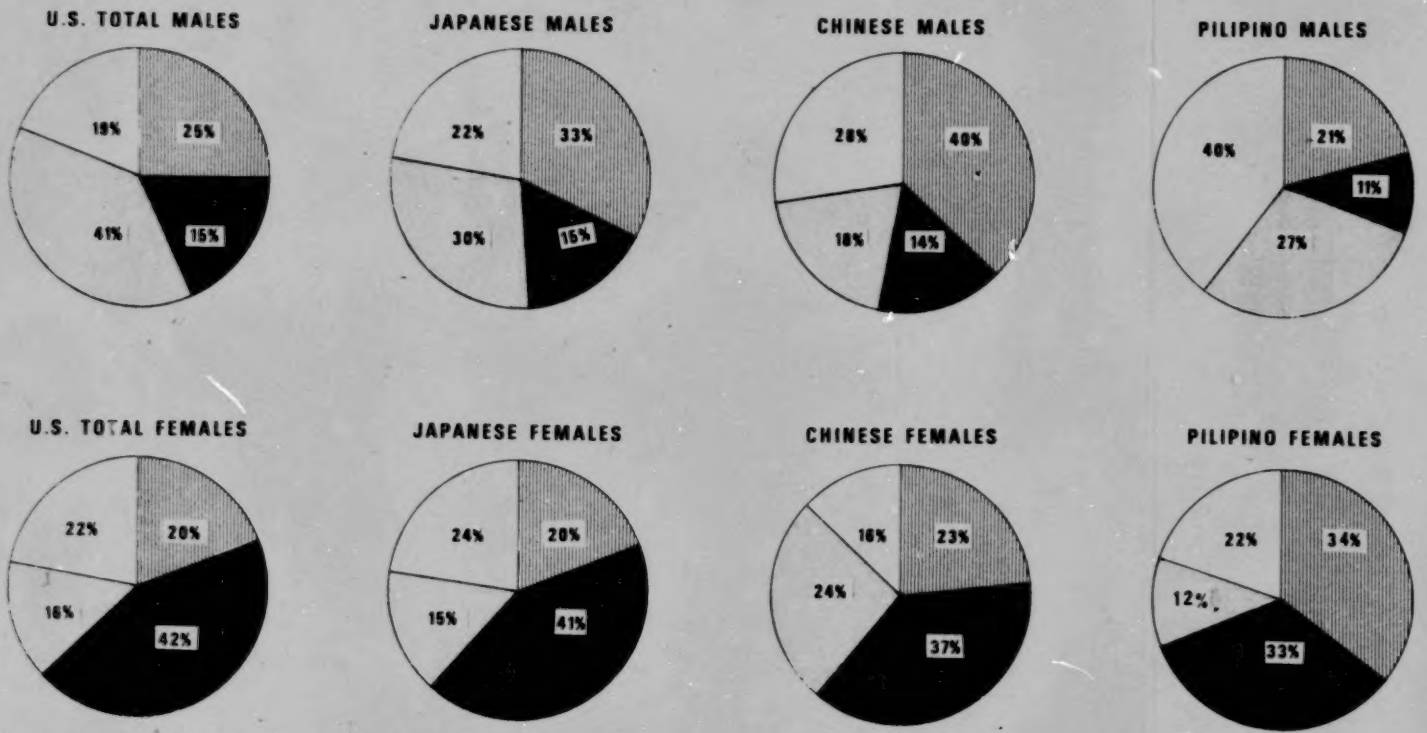
MAJOR OCCUPATIONS OF ASIAN AMERICANS

PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, MANAGERIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE WORKERS

CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN AND OPERATIVES

SALES AND CLERICAL WORKERS

SERVICE WORKERS, FARM MANAGERS, FARM LABORERS, AND OTHER LABORERS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Table E-4

Occupations of Japanese and Chinese*

By Sex and Natvity: 1970

Occupations:	Japanese				Chinese			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	U.S. Born	Foreign Born	U.S. Born	Foreign Born	U.S. Born	Foreign Born	U.S. Born	Foreign Born
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Professional, Technical and Managerial Workers	31	45	21	13	38	42	24	22
Clerical and Sales Workers	15	13	47	19	18	10	51	24
Craftsmen and Operatives	33	13	11	31	22	15	9	37
Laborers, Non-Farm	9	13	1	1	5	2	1	1
Service Workers Including Domestics	4	9	18	33	16	30	14	15
Farm-Related Managers and Workers	10	7	2	3	1	1	1	1

*Comparable data on Pilipinos are not available.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Report:National Origin and Language, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States.

foreign-born Japanese men are in the so-called upper status white-collar occupations as professionals and managerial workers. Less than a third of the U.S.-born Japanese men are in these occupations however. Instead fully a third of all native-born men are in skilled and semi-skilled blue collar jobs as craftsmen, foremen and operatives while only 13% of the foreign-born Japanese males are so employed.

Due to the selectivity of immigration standards which favor the immigration of persons with high skills, considerable numbers of professionally and technically trained Asians have immigrated to the United States in recent years. 53% of all Japanese who reported an occupation at their time of entry were in higher level job categories (see Table E-5). Although, compared to the U.S. born, there is a larger proportion of foreign-born males in such occupations, there is evidence that some of the Japanese immigrants have not been able to obtain employment in this country commensurate with their education and past experiences (see discussion of underemployment at the end of Employment Section).

Despite the agricultural background of many Japanese in this country, agriculture is no longer a major occupational area for Japanese Americans. Only about 5% of all Japanese males are employed on farms, the same as the U. S. average for males. Among the elderly, however, 15% are employed on farms. Another 22% of Japanese elderly men are working in menial nonfarm laboring occupations.

Females

Of all employed Japanese women, 41% are either clerical or sales workers--a rate that is virtually identical to the average for all women in the U.S. (42%). Another 21% are in the more menial service occupations. This is at the U. S. rate (20%), which again refutes the stereotype that Japanese have all achieved white collar employment. Another 20% of Japanese women are employed in the professional and managerial occupations, again equaling the U. S. average for all women.

Local data reveal that in certain areas there is a much greater concentration of Japanese women employed in lower skilled occupations, thus creating a local job profile that differs markedly from the national profile of Japanese women. Outside of Hawaii and California, two out of every five female workers are operatives and service workers. Among foreign-born Japanese women (see Table E-4) 64% are craftsmen, operatives, and service workers while a mere 13% of all foreign-born women are professionals and administrators.

Next to professionals, the two largest occupations reported by recent Japanese immigrants at time of entry have been service workers and clerical workers (see Table E-5). 1/ Many of these are probably female immigrants seeking better employment opportunities in the U.S. Lacking English language skills, however, both these and earlier Japanese female immigrants would tend to find employment in this country only in semi-skilled and unskilled blue collar occupations, (see Table E-4), since employment as a clerical or sales worker in the United States usually requires fluency in English. Only 19% of all foreign-born women in 1970 were clerical or sales workers.

Only 2% of all Japanese women work on farms, but 13% of those who are 65 years old or over and working, work on farms.

Occupations - Chinese

Males

With the high proportion of college educated in the population, by far the largest area of employment for Chinese men are in the professional and managerial occupations. Some 40% of all working Chinese males are in these two categories of higher level occupations.

Large numbers have tended to concentrate in the engineering and health fields because these subject areas were emphasized in China and also because ability in these fields is less dependent upon skills with the English language.

Despite the very high proportions of males in these occupations, it is apparent upon an examination of the jobs reported by immigrants at time of entry and of the educational background of all Chinese, that the proportion of men who should be employed in such jobs is higher still. In fact, there are many Chinese men who are underemployed (see "Underemployment" discussion that follows).

Out of the 40% Chinese males employed in the higher status occupations, 11% work in managerial occupations (the same percentage as the U.S. average and lower only than the Japanese.

1/ Immigration visas are assigned on the basis of seven preference categories, five of which are based upon family relationship to someone who is already a U.S. resident. The two preference categories not based on such a relationship concern aliens who are members of the professions or who possess exceptional ability in the sciences and arts, and aliens admitted to fill skilled or unskilled positions.

Table E-5

Occupational Distribution of Asian Immigrants: 1965-1973

At Time of Entry

	Country of Birth		
	Japan	China, Taiwan and Hong Kong	Philippines
All Immigrants Reporting an Occupation	100%	100%	100%
Professional, Technical and Managerial Workers	53	50	69
Clerical and Sales Workers	17	11	8
Craftsmen and Operatives	8	16	6
Laborers, Nonfarm	2	2	2
Service Workers Including Domestics	17	2	9
Farm-Related Managers and Workers	3	0.2	6
% of All Immigrants with no Occupations or not Reporting an Occupation (includes housewives and children)	75	63	55

Source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service Annual Reports (1965-1973).

Although this proportion of Chinese males works in managerial positions, this in no way implies that they are all to be found in America's large businesses or corporations. Most of these managers are owners and proprietors of small retail and food stores or Chinese restaurants, as 10% of all employed Chinese are self-employed (approximately the same percentage as in managerial occupations).

Retail and wholesale trade are important industries employing Chinese males not only in managerial positions, but also in other positions. Of all Chinese males who are employed, some 37% are in the retail and wholesale trade industries.

Nearly a quarter (24%) of all Chinese men are employed as service workers, many of them in Chinese restaurants and laundries. This type of work has long been a major source of employment for Chinese males. The proportion of all working Chinese men in these occupations has not changed over the past decade. 1/

Locally, in New York City and San Francisco, the percentage of Chinese men in the high-status professional occupations drops sharply, while the percentage in service occupations increases (see Table E-1). Nationally, nearly 30% of the Chinese men work as professionals, but in New York and San Francisco (15%) much smaller percentages do. And, while 24% of Chinese men in the whole country are employed in service work, a slightly higher 28% in San Francisco are so employed and a very high 38% in New York City are.

In Hawaii, the percentage of Chinese males employed in skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar occupations is higher (29%) than it is for the Chinese nationally (18%). As with the Japanese men in Hawaii, the Chinese men have also made more progress in gaining union membership in the state where Asians are the majority.

Females

As in most populations of working women, the largest occupational categories in which Chinese women are employed are the low-level white-collar jobs such as sales clerks, typists and secretaries (see Table E-2). Over one-third of all Chinese women (37%) are sales and clerical workers. The Chinese working in these jobs are mostly of U.S. birth, however. Over half of all Chinese women born in the U.S. (51%) are employed in these occupations while less than a quarter of those women who are foreign born are employed in these occupations (see Table E-4).

1/ U.S. Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race, Op Cit.

Almost a quarter of the Chinese women in the United States work as semi-skilled operatives (23%); most of these women are operating machinery such as sewing machines, laundry machines, and light factory equipment. The percentages of women employed in these jobs are higher in cities with high concentrations of recently immigrant women who, because of language barriers, are unable to find more lucrative forms of employment. In San Francisco and New York City, 31% and 46% of all the Chinese women are employed in these semi-skilled occupations. In all, 37% of the foreign-born Chinese women in the United States work in factory-related jobs (as craftsmen and operatives) while a mere 9% of the native-born Chinese women are employed in such occupations.

Almost a quarter (23%) of Chinese women in the country are employed in professional and managerial occupations. While this is a slightly higher rate than that of all women (19%), it in no way approaches the very high 40% of Chinese males working in these fields, nor as high as the very high 33% for Pilipino women.

Occupations - Pilipinos

Males

Some 40% of all Pilipino men in the U. S. are working in low-skilled, low-waged, menial jobs such as laborers (including farm labor) and service occupations (see Table E-2). This is twice the proportion for men in the U. S. as a whole (19%).

Of all Pilipino men, 12% are farm workers, which is the second highest percentage of men in farm-related occupations and over two times the national average for all men (5% of whom are working in farm-related jobs). As one would expect, the percentage of farm workers is higher in rural areas. Of all Pilipino men in rural areas, 43% are employed as farm workers.

Over half of all Pilipino farm workers live in California and another 40% in Hawaii (see Table E-6). Only two-thirds of all Pilipino farm workers actually live in rural areas, however. Since the work is seasonal, some maintain their residences in urban areas.

Of all Pilipinos working on farms, by far the majority are middle-aged or elderly. In California, 80% of all Pilipino farm workers are 45 years old or above. In Hawaii, 70% of all persons working on farms are as old.

Table E-6

Summary Characteristics of Pilipino Farm Workers:* 1970

Geographic Distribution

U. S.	100%
Rural Residence	64%
Urban Residence	36%
California	54%
Hawaii	40%
Other	6%

Sex and Age Distribution

	Total	% Male	% Female	% 16-24 Years	% 25-44 Years	% 45-64 Years	% 65 and Over
Calif.	100%	94	6	6	13	58	22
Hawaii	100%	86	14	6	23	66	4

* Includes all Pilipinos 16 years old and over who are Farm Laborers, Farmers or Farm Managers.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipino in the United States PC(2)-1G.

As Table E-5 illustrates, the percentage of immigrants reporting former occupations in professional and managerial fields is higher for the Pilipinos (69%) than for either the Chinese (50%) or the Japanese (53%).

The effect of this immigration has been to markedly increase the proportion of Pilipinos in this country holding higher level jobs. Among males, for example, between 1960 and 1970 the percentage of professionals tripled, and in 1970 was 4% higher than the U.S. average for men (14%).

Yet, despite the increased proportion of highly skilled persons, the proportion of persons in the Pilipino population employed in menial service and labor occupations has remained about the same over the decade.

The percentages of Pilipino males in professional occupations vary sharply from place to place and the distribution clearly delineates the highly skilled, recently immigrant populations from the less skilled, native-born or older foreign-born Pilipino populations. In Hawaii, where most Pilipino males are older or native born, only 4.6% are professionals, while in the urban areas outside California and Hawaii where newly arrived immigrants are concentrated, 42% are.

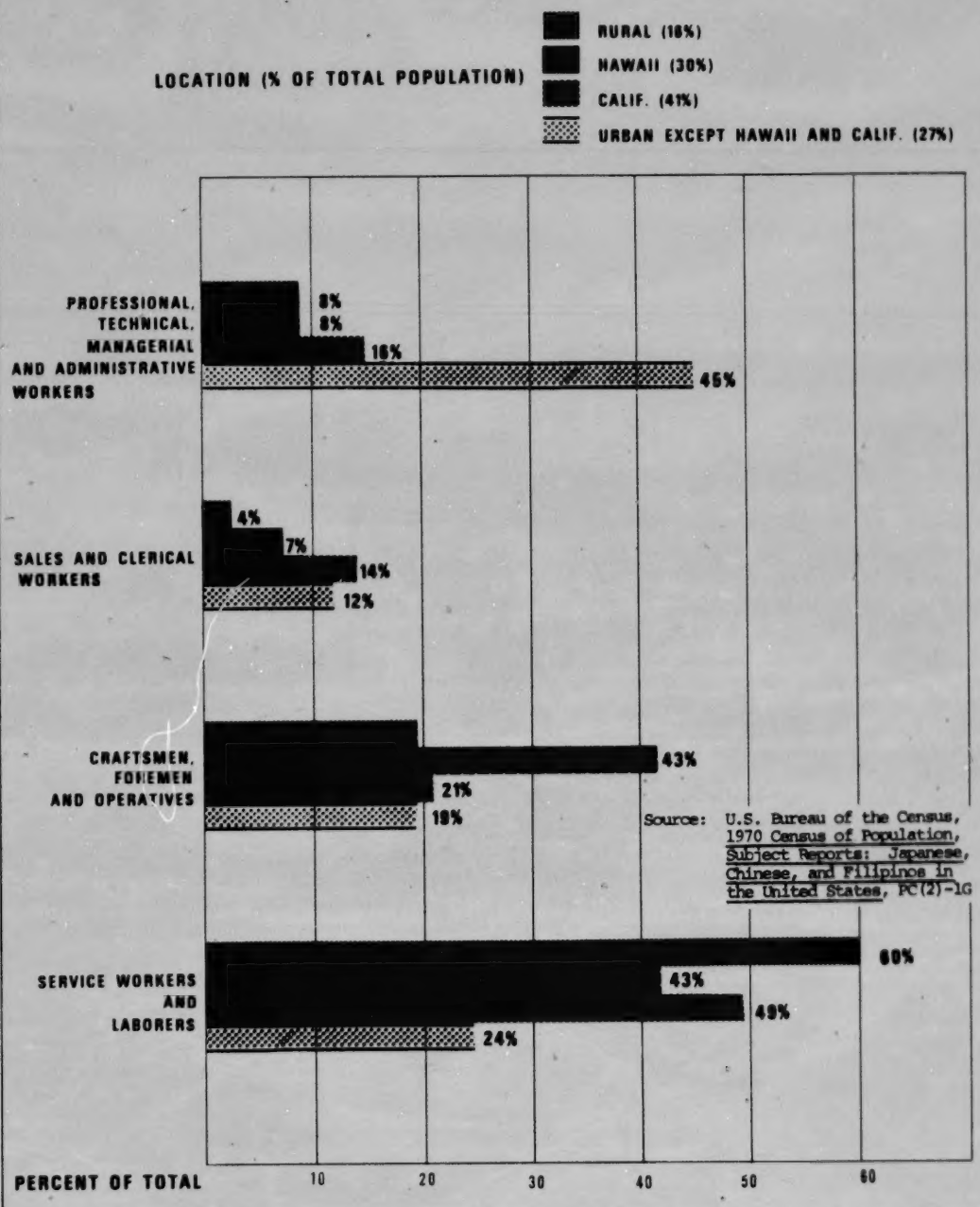
Only 3% of all Pilipino men are managers or administrators. This is far below the U. S. average of 11%. This same low rate for Pilipinos is found throughout the country, suggesting a barrier against Pilipino entrepreneurial or managerial efforts. Clearly, greater efforts should be made to encourage greater participation by Pilipinos in these areas.

Chart E-b summarizes the very different distribution of jobs held by Pilipino men in various parts of the country. In urban areas outside Hawaii and California, nearly half are in higher status white-collar jobs as professionals, and managerial workers. In rural areas, on the other hand, 60% of all Pilipino men are employed as service workers, farm workers, and laborers.

Nationally, 27% of all Pilipinos are employed as craftsmen, foremen, or machine operators, the skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar jobs. In Hawaii, however, 43% are thus employed. As we have already seen with Japanese and Chinese men, a higher percentage of Pilipino men in Hawaii are able to obtain employment in the skilled trades (22%), a possible reflection of limited access by Asians elsewhere into these job areas. Only 13% of Pilipino males nationally are employed in the skilled trades.

CHART E-b

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF PILIPINO MALES BY SELECTED LOCATION



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Females

Patterns of employment by Pilipino women in the U. S. are perhaps the most complicated of any ethnic group. The national data is only a composite of several different employment patterns, each characteristic of Pilipino women in a particular part of the country. No analysis, therefore, will be made of the national data and what follows below is an individual analysis of the employment patterns for Pilipino women in each of the local areas (see Table E-2 and Chart E-c).

In rural areas, nearly half of all Pilipino women work on farms (14%) or in service occupations (32%). This is more than double the rate for women in the country,as a whole,who work in low-skilled menial occupations. The remaining employed women are distributed in such jobs as clerical workers (17%), machine operators (12%), and professionals (13%).

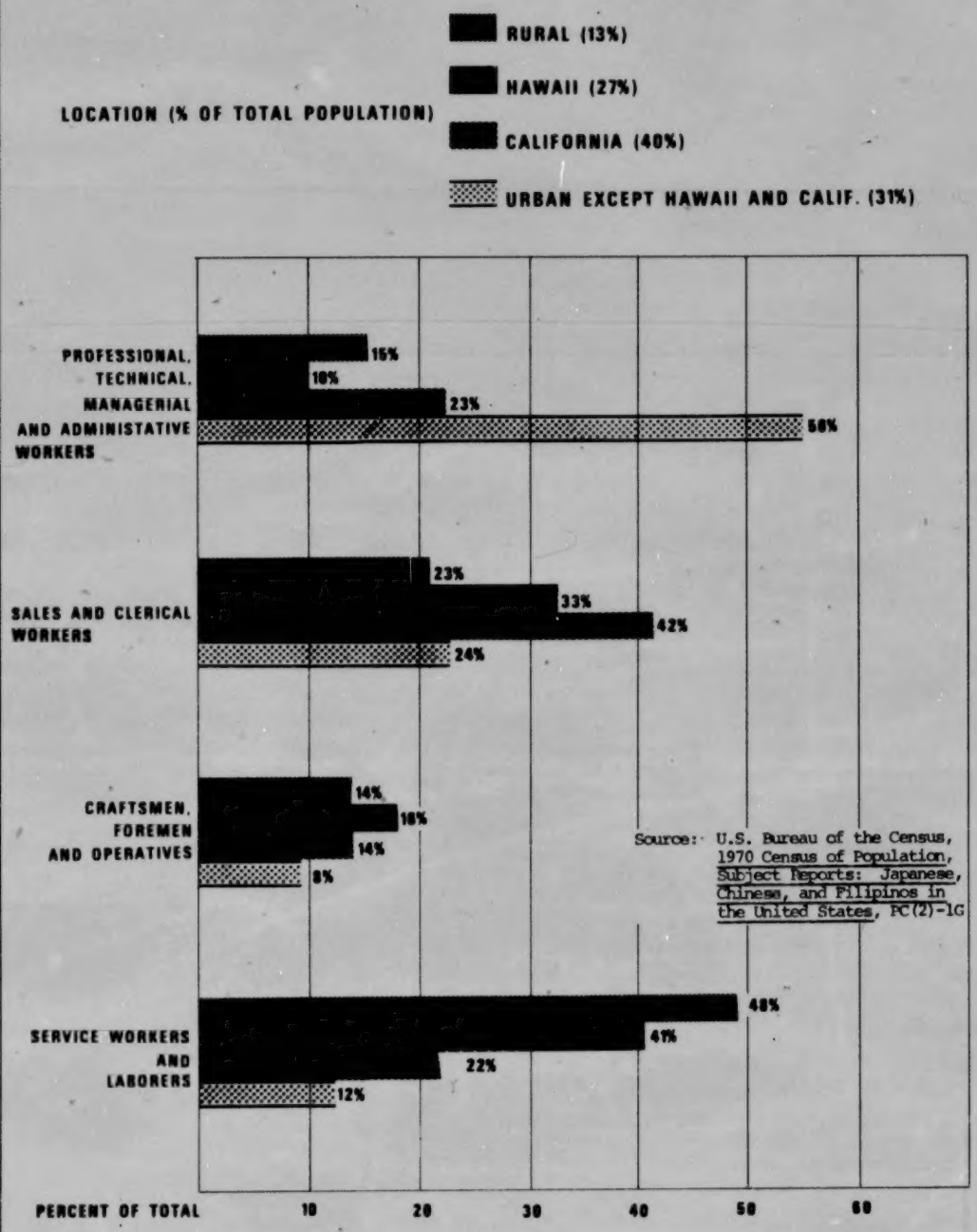
Over one-third (34%) of all Pilipino women in Hawaii work in service occupations, while another one-third (33%) are in sales and clerical jobs, suggesting some degree of mobility into the lower level, white-collar occupations. Of the Pilipino women, 15% are semi-skilled machine operators, a rate just over the U. S. total average (14%), but only 8% of women are in professional occupations, far less than the percentage for Pilipino women anywhere else in the country and half the U. S. average for women (16%).

In California, 42% of all Pilipino women are employed in clerical and sales jobs--the same rate as the U. S. average for women. This again seems to show some degree of mobility by the women into middle-class, white-collar occupations. On the other hand, since there are large numbers of newer Pilipino female immigrants who have settled in California, some of these women could be of professional backgrounds and their employment in lower skilled-white collar jobs could represent underemployment rather than mobility. A fifth of the Pilipino women in California were working as professionals in 1970. 19% of the Pilipino women in California are service workers--about the same rate as that for U.S. women, as a whole, and a smaller proportion than among Pilipino women in Hawaii or rural areas.

Outside Hawaii and California an impressive 55% of all Pilipino women are employed in professional occupations. Another 22% of the women are employed as clerical workers. In all 80% of the women in these areas are employed in white collar occupations of either high or low status.

CHART E-c

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF PILIPINO FEMALES BY SELECTED LOCATION



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Most Pilipino women in professional occupations in the U. S. have immigrated recently. As Table E-7 illustrates, the proportion of recently immigrant Pilipino women in the U. S. varies markedly from state to state, and there is a direct relationship between the proportions of foreign-born Pilipinos and those professionally employed.

Underemployment

There is some evidence that despite the highly skilled background of a majority of Asians who have recently immigrated to this country, due to factors which include discrimination, non-citizenship status, licensing requirements or lack of ability in English, many former professional workers have been forced to shift to lesser skilled non-professional occupations.

According to Immigration and Naturalization Service figures, 54% of all Japanese and 46% of all Chinese immigrating between 1965 and 1970 who reported an occupation at time of entry were professionals, technicians or managers (see Table E-8). In the 1970 Census, however, only 46% of employed Japanese and 32% of employed Chinese who entered the U.S. during the previous five years reported having a professional or managerial occupation. For the Japanese, this represents an 8% drop while for the Chinese there is a 14% drop.

Some further estimate of the degree of underemployment existing in Asian American populations can be ascertained by comparing the ratio of persons in higher status white-collar jobs to persons with a college education for the total U. S. population and for the Asian American populations in selected areas (see Table E-9). In the U. S. there are 1.5 men and 1.0 women in higher status occupations for every man and woman who has completed at least 4 years of college. Except in Hawaii, the ratios are much smaller in the Japanese, Chinese and Pilipino populations.

The gap between the number of persons with a college degree and the number of persons employed in higher status jobs is greatest among Pilipino men. Nationally, there are only 0.9 Pilipino males in the professional and managerial occupations for every Pilipino male with a college education. There are 1.5 males in the total U.S. population employed in higher status jobs for every male college graduate.

Among Japanese and Chinese, ratios are also lower than in the total population. The gap is greatest among the foreign born.

Table E-7

Pilipino Women in Professional Occupations

States:	Pilipino Women in United States		
	% in Labor Force	% Foreign Born	% Working in Professional Occupations
Hawaii	48%	27%	8%
Washington	52	52	18
California	55	55	21
New York	71	73	56
Illinois	77	78	64

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Table E-8

Occupations of Japanese and Chinese Workers*

at Time of Entry and in 1970**

	JAPANESE		CHINESE	
	Occupations Reported by persons at Time of Immigration: (1965 - 1970)	1970 Occupation of Persons Who Immigrated (1965 - 1970)	Occupations Reported by Persons at Time of Immigration: (1965 - 1970)	1970 Occupation of Persons Who Immigrated (1965 - 1970)
All Immigrants Reporting an Occupation	100%	100%	100%	100%
Professional, Technical and Managerial Workers	54	46	46	32
Clerical and Sales Workers	17	18	11	15
Craftsmen and Operatives	7	12	16	22
Laborers, Nonfarm	2	4	2	2
Service Workers Including Domestics	16	17	24	29
Farm-Related Managers and Workers	4	3	1	0.3

*Comparable data on Pilipinos are not available.

**Above data are taken from two different sources--the Immigration and Naturalization Service and the 1970 Census. A certain margin of error, therefore, must be taken into account when making comparisons. INS, for example, does not include Asian nonimmigrants (aliens who are students, tourists, exchange visitors, and a variety of other categories) some of whom may work.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population National Origin and Language; Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) Annual Reports (1965-1970).

Table E-9

Ratio of Persons in Professional, Technical and Managerial Occupations to Persons With 4 or More Years of College:1970*

	Males	Females
U.S. Total	1.5	1.0
Japanese		
U.S.	1.3	0.9
Hawaii	1.8	1.3
California	1.3	0.8
Other	1.0	0.6
Foreign Born	0.9	0.5
Chinese		
U.S.	1.1	0.7
Hawaii	1.5	1.0
California	1.2	0.7
New York State	1.1	0.7
Foreign Born	1.0	0.6
Pilipinos		
U.S.	0.9	0.7
Hawaii	1.7	0.7
California	0.9	0.5
Rural Outside Hawaii & California	1.1	0.7
	0.9	0.7

*The ratios on this table are based on the number of persons in professional, technical and managerial occupations over the number of persons with 4 or more years of college.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population Detailed Characteristics, U. S. Summary, PC(1)-1D Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States. PC(2)-1G

These data indicate that when educational attainments are taken into account in all three Asian subgroups, the proportion of workers employed in higher status jobs is not equal to the proportion in the total population. The skills of some Asian workers are being under-utilized. The data may also suggest that it is easier for persons in the majority population to obtain employment in higher level jobs without a college degree than it is for the Asian Americans. 1/

1/ The requirement that professional, technical and managerial workers be college educated has increased in recent decades. A larger proportion of older, high status, white-collar workers do not have a college degree. The ratios for men in the Asian and U.S. total populations, by age, are shown below:

Ratios of Men in Professional, Technical and Managerial Jobs to Men with 4 or More Years of College, by Age Groups: 1970

	25-34 Years Old	35-44 Years Old	45-64 Years Old
U.S. Total	1.4	1.6	1.9
Japanese	1.1	1.4	2.0
Chinese	0.8	1.1	1.5
Pilipinos	0.8	0.9	1.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC(2)-D1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G.

III. F. INCOME CHARACTERISTICS

There are great contrasts in the levels of income of Asian American populations. In some cases, despite their heavy participation in professional and technical occupations, levels of income are not higher than incomes for the rest of the country. Since a very large proportion of the populations live in Hawaii (where salaries and the cost of living are at least 25% higher), the national data on income levels of Asians are higher than they would be for a subgroup whose population was more evenly distributed in all parts of the country. As with all groups, there is a great contrast between income levels for working males and working females. (The local data from which our discussion is drawn appear in Table F-1.)

Japanese

Individual Incomes

Almost a third (30%) of Japanese men, 16 and over, earn less than $4,000 a year (almost the same as the national rate 31%) while another third (33%) of the Japanese males earn over $10,000 a year--thus reflecting a society that is not homogenous. Although one-third are among the middle and upper income groups, one-third are also among the low income, deprived groups in the U.S. society (see Chart F-a).

Compared to the total U.S. population, a higher proportion of the Japanese males are college educated (see Section D. Education) and employed in professional and managerial occupations (see Section E. Employment). An analysis of income levels of men in the total U.S. population and in the Japanese population relative to the proportions with a college education and to the proportions in higher status white-collar jobs, reveals that the income levels of Japanese in the United States are lagging behind those of the total population (see Table F-2).

In the total population there are 1.5 men 25-34 years old earning over $10,000 to every one man with a college degree. In this same age group, there are 1.1 men earning over $10,000 for each one in a professional or managerial job. Nationally, among Japanese men 25-34 years old, however, there is less than one person earning $10,000 for every Japanese male with a college degree and for every Japanese male in a professional or managerial occupation. The income lag also exists among males 35-44 years of age. The only age group for which, nationally, there does not appear to be an income lag is among males of middle age, 45-64 years old. Among men working outside Hawaii

Table F-1

Income Characteristics of the U.S. Total Population and Asian Americans, 1970

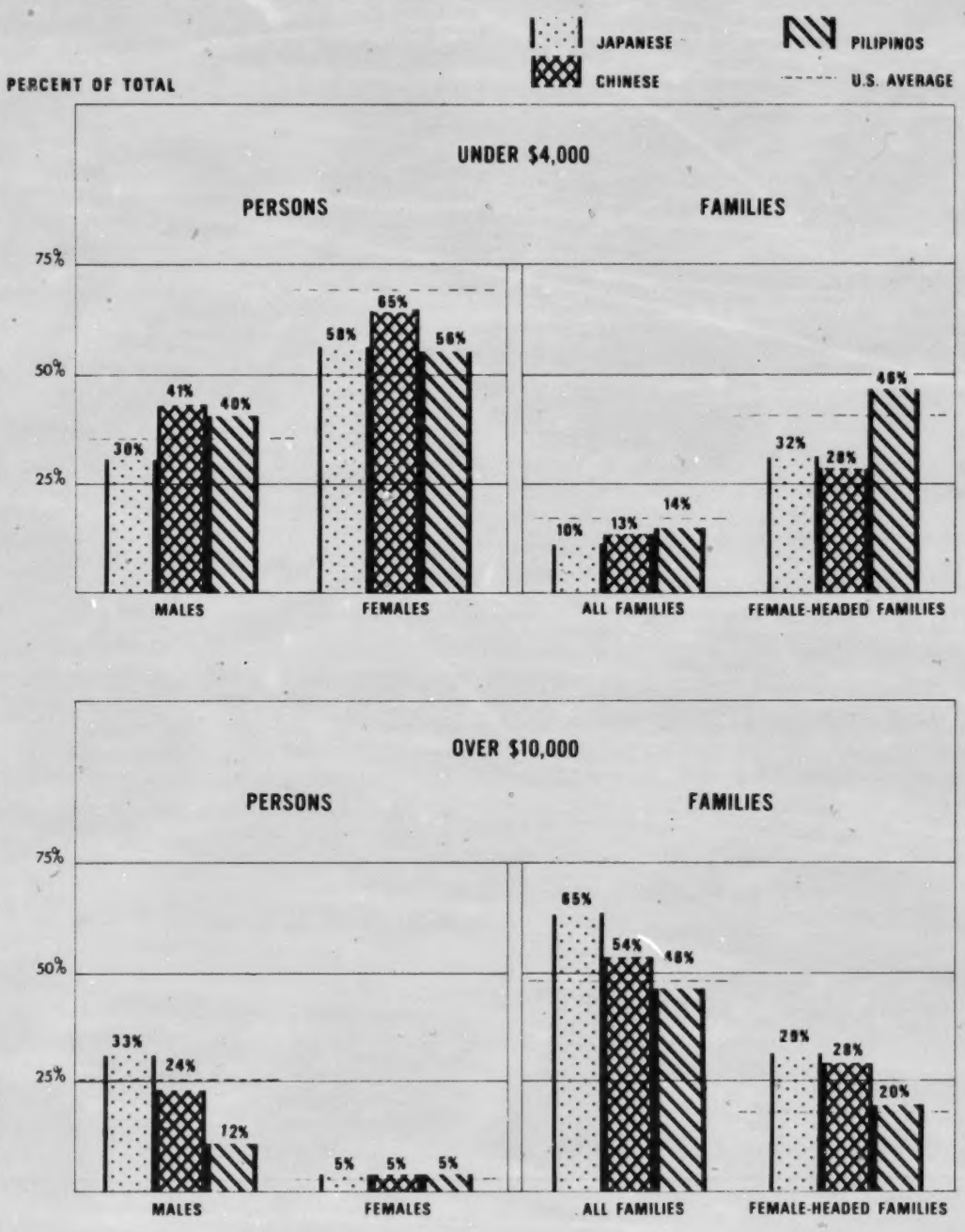
	U.S.	Japanese				Chinese					Pilipinos				
	Total	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif	Other	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F.	N.Y.C	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	Urban
Income of Persons 16 and Over															
% Under $4,000															
Male	31	30	26	29	36	41	27	40	44	47	40	36	43	47	39**
Female	68	58	54	58	65	65	54	67	68	61	56	69	56	74	47
% $10,000 & Over															
Male	25	33	33	32	31	24	36	25	15	12	12	11	11	6	17
Female	3	5	5	3	4	5	7	4	3	3	5	2	3	2	8
Income of Families															
% Under $4,000	15	10	6	9	16	13	7	13	16	16	14	12	15	16	15*
% $10,000 & Over	47	65	71	65	54	54	71	56	49	35	46	45	44	35	48
Median Income (dollars)	9,590	12,515	13,542	12,393	11034	10,610	14,936	10,916	9,879	7,809	9,318	9,289	9,124	7,475	9,690
Income of Families with Female Heads									Calif. Urban	N.Y. Urban					
% Under $4,000	41	32	18	31	47	28	21	28	28	26	46	45	48	48	43
% $10,000 & Over	18	29	39	29	19	28	40	27	27	25	20	18	16	18	26
Median Income (dollars)	4,962	6,467	8,112	6,689	4636	6,627	8,256	6,369	6,359	6,716	4,708	4,574	4,341	4,348	5,254

*Urban U.S. except urban Hawaii and urban California.
**Total U.S. except Hawaii and California.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

CHART F-a

ASIAN AMERICAN INCOMES
UNDER $4,000 AND $10,000 AND OVER



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1

Table F-2

Ratios of Income to Education and Occupation for Japanese

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons With 4 Years College or More: 1970

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.5	2.4	3.1	0.1	0.3	0.5
Japanese						
U.S.	0.9	1.8	3.4	0.1	0.4	0.8
Calif.	0.9	1.8	3.1	0.2	0.4	0.9
Hawaii*	1.6	2.7	6.0	0.1	0.6	1.1
Other	0.5	1.1	2.0	0.1	0.2	0.6

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons in Professional, Technical and Managerial Occupations: 1970

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.1	1.5	1.6	0.2	0.3	0.4
Japanese						
U.S.	0.8	1.3	1.7	0.2	0.4	0.5
Calif.	0.8	1.3	1.8	0.3	0.5	0.6
Hawaii*	1.2	1.6	1.9	0.2	0.5	0.5
Other	0.5	1.1	1.4	0.2	0.3	0.5

*Because of cost of living differences, incomes in Hawaii are higher.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC-D1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

and California, income levels proportionate to the number of persons with a college degree or in professional and managerial occupations are behind levels for men in the total U.S. population even at this age level.

Among employed Japanese women, well over half (58%) are earning less than $4,000. While this percentage is less than the average rate for all women in the country (68%), it is a far higher rate of low earnings than the rate among men in any ethnic group. Of Japanese women in the labor force in 1970, 52% worked for a full year compared to only 44% of all women in the general population who did. Since the Japanese women worked over a longer period of time, their overall annual income tended to be higher, also.

The percentage of employed Japanese women earning $10,000 or more a year (5%) is higher than the average for all women in the U.S. (3%), but it is a very small percentage when compared to the proportion earning at this level in the male population (24%). The ratios of women earning $10,000 or more a year to the proportions who have graduated from college and to the proportions who are in professional and managerial jobs are up to and, in some cases, above levels for women in the total U.S. population. The ratios are far smaller than for men in either the Japanese or the U.S. total populations (Table F-2).

Family Incomes

The national income level for Japanese families is higher than that of U.S. families in general. The median family income of Japanese families is almost $3,000 higher than the median for the entire U.S.

A major factor resulting in the higher income levels of the Japanese families is that in a majority of Japanese households (60%) there is more than one earner. Only 51% of all U.S. families have more than one earner. In over half of the Japanese families, both husbands and wives work, compared to only 39% of all families in the U.S. with husbands and wives who are both working. The very high labor force participation rate of Japanese women contributes greatly to the total incomes of their families.

Among Japanese families with foreign-born heads (many of them elderly), the median family income is much lower. At $8,374, the figure in 1970 is over $1,000 below the median for all U.S. families. Data from local areas also identify many Japanese families whose incomes are not as high as they are for Japanese nationally. This is particularly evident as far as the 24% of all Japanese families located outside the states of Hawaii and California are concerned. Of the Japanese families in such areas, 16% have an income less than $4,000 (1% higher than the proportion of all families in the country with such low incomes). Particularly impoverished in these areas are the female-headed families; 47% have an income less than $4,000, compared to 41% of all female-headed families. The median income for Japanese families that have a woman as a head in these states is only $4,636, lower than the average for all female-headed families in the country ($4,962).

In Hawaii, the situation of Japanese female-headed families is better. Only 18% of female-headed families have an income under $4,000, and nearly 40% have incomes over $10,000. At $8,112, the median income of Japanese female-headed families in Hawaii is $1,600 higher than the median for Japanese female-headed families in the entire country. Possible factors contributing to this difference include the higher cost of living in Hawaii, necessitating that any analysis of income be adjusted for higher costs on the Islands, and the fact that Japanese families in Hawaii have been established longer, so that the female head there is more likely to have older children able to help support the family. 1/ Other data on greater percentages of extended families among Japanese in Hawaii than Japanese elsewhere suggest this possibility.

Chinese

The income patterns of the Chinese in the U.S. present a picture of relatively low individual incomes, coupled with high family incomes.

Individual Incomes

Of all Chinese men, 41% earn an annual income of less than $4,000--a much larger percentage of men getting low wages than the average for the country (31%) (see Chart F-a). This reflects a very serious problem among both older Chinese men and the newly immigrant Chinese men, who are able to find employment only in low-paying, low-skilled, menial jobs.

1/ The age distributions of Japanese female family heads in Hawaii and elsewhere contrast markedly:

	25-34 yrs.	35-44 yrs.	45-64 yrs.	65 yrs & Over
Hawaii	11%	25%	46%	18%
Elsewhere	17	40	31	12

On the other end of the scale, nearly one-quarter (24%) of all Chinese men are making over $10,000 a year. The rate is about the same as the national average for the country (25%).

Locally, the incomes of Chinese males in Hawaii tend to be higher than for Chinese elsewhere. In Hawaii, only 27% of the Chinese males have an income less than $4,000, whereas 41% in the country do. And,while 24% of all Chinese males make over $10,000, 36% in Hawaii do.

On the other hand, the economic pictures of the Chinese males in San Francisco and New York are bleaker and annual incomes are much lower. Proportionally, more Chinese men in San Francisco and New York have lower incomes than the Chinese nationally (44% in San Francisco and 47% in New York have incomes under $4,000, compared to 41% for all Chinese males), and there are only half as many men in the higher income brackets compared to Chinese elsewhere. (Nationally, 24% of all Chinese males make over $10,000, but only 15% in San Francisco and 12% in New York City make that much.)

The proportion of Chinese males with college degrees and in professional and managerial occupations nationally is higher than in any other population group. Income levels of Chinese men, however, are not nearly as high proportionately. Among males, the ratios of persons earning $10,000 or more to persons with college degrees or employed in higher status white-collar jobs fall far behind men in the total population in all age groups and in all areas including Hawaii (see Table F-3). The ratios are particularly low in New York State. There the proportion of Chinese men earning $10,000 or more for each one with a college degree is only a third as large as in the total U.S. male population and the proportion of men earning $10,000 or more for each one with a professional or managerial job is only half as much as in the total U.S. male population.

About half the wives (48%) in Chinese husband/wife families are employed, compared to only 39% of all wives who are. However, 15% of these and other employed Chinese women earn less than $4,000 a year. This proportion of women achieving only low incomes is larger than among women in either of the other two Asian subgroups and is close to the average for the U.S. (68%).

Table F-3

Ratios of Income to Education and Occupation for the Chinese

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons With 4 Years College or More

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.5	2.4	3.1	0.1	0.3	0.5
Chinese						
U.S.	0.5	1.1	1.5	0.1	0.3	0.4
Calif.	0.7	1.4	1.7	0.1	0.3	0.4
Hawaii*	1.2	1.8	2.9	0.2	0.3	0.4
New York**	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.4

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons in Professional, Technical and Managerial Occupations

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.1	1.5	1.6	0.2	0.3	0.4
Chinese						
U.S.	0.6	1.0	1.0	0.2	0.4	0.5
Calif.	0.7	1.1	1.1	0.2	0.4	0.5
Hawaii*	1.0	1.4	1.5	0.2	0.5	0.6
New York**	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.6

*Because of cost of living differences, incomes in Hawaii are higher.

**New York State

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC-D1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

As with Japanese working women, the percentage of Chinese women with incomes over $10,000 (5%) is somewhat larger than the U.S. average for women (3%), but small compared to men in any ethnic group. The ratios of women with incomes of $10,000 or more to women with college degrees and to women in professional and managerial jobs are close to and in some cases above the ratios for women in the total population (see Table F-3).

Family Incomes

About 60% of all Chinese families have more than one earner, while only 51% of all U.S. families have more than one earner. The impact of these additional Chinese earners is to raise the overall income of a family and to obscure the large percentage of individuals earning very low incomes. As a result, although individual income is below U.S. average, the median Chinese family income in 1970, at $10,610, was $1,000 higher than the U.S. average of $9,590. Of all Chinese families, 13% had incomes of less than $4,000, close to, but under the U.S. average (15%). Another 54% had incomes over $10,000--7% more than the U.S. average. Were it not for the contribution of working wives and incomes from other relatives, most of these families would present a very different picture.

Incomes of Chinese families in Hawaii are particularly high. (As we have seen earlier, the personal incomes in Hawaii are also higher for the Chinese.) Only 7% of Hawaii Chinese families have incomes under $4,000 (one-half the U.S. average of 15%), and 71% have incomes over $10,000 (compared to 54% for Chinese in the rest of the country). The median Chinese family income there in 1970 was $14,936--a figure inflated by the higher cost of living on the Islands, but nevertheless higher than for the other Asian subgroups in the state.

As has been shown, obtaining a livelihood in New York City has been particularly difficult for the Chinese. Family incomes there are half what they are in Hawaii. In New York City, only 35% of the families make over $10,000 and the median income is down to a very low $7,809.

The median income of all Chinese families whose heads were foreign born was $9,660 in 1970, higher than the median family income for the total U.S. in 1970. However, the income levels of both the most recent arrivals and of those who immigrated prior to 1925 are far lower. The median income of Chinese families whose family heads arrived between 1965 and 1970 was only $7,372 in 1970 while the median income of families arriving before 1925 was only $7,426.

Among all ethnic groups, Chinese have the lowest percentage of female-headed families in their population (7% compared to 11% nationally). Of these female-headed families, 28% are living on less than $4,000 (41% for the rest of the country) and the same proportion of them (28%) have incomes over $10,000 (18% for the rest of the country). The median income of Chinese female-headed families, $6,627, is slightly higher than the median of the Japanese female-headed families, although the median income of all Chinese families is $2,000 lower than that of all Japanese families.

In Hawaii, 40% of Chinese female-headed families live on more than $10,000 and the median income of female-headed families there, $8,256, is higher than the median income of all Chinese families in New York City, $7,809, an unexpected situation and quite different from female-headed households elsewhere in the population.

Pilipinos

Individual Incomes

Many older Pilipino men in the U.S. have not had the benefits of extensive education and are employed in low-skilled, low-paying occupations. Expectedly, then, the income levels of Pilipino men are lower than for men in the total population. Of all Pilipino men, 40% earn less than $4,000 a year (the U.S. average is 31%) and only 12% make over $10,000 (half the U.S. rate of 25%).

Ratios of men earning $10,000 or more to men with college degrees and to men employed in higher status white-collar jobs reveal further the degree to which income levels of Pilipinos are behind those of men in the total population. Except in Hawaii, in almost all age groups the ratios of Pilipino men are far behind ratios for the total population. The greatest income lag occurs in areas outside Hawaii and California. It should be noted that in Hawaii the proportion of Pilipino men aged 45-64 and earning $10,000 or more is 10.5 times the number of men with a college education. These figures indicate that of those few older Pilipino men who have achieved a moderate income, most have done so without the advantages of a college education (see Table F-4).

More Pilipino women are in the labor force (55%), and their educational attainments are higher (27% are college graduates) than women in any other group. Despite these characteristics, however, the Pilipino women are doing only slightly better compared to other women and not very well at all compared to males when their very high educational achievements are considered. Of all the Pilipino women, 56% make less than $4,000, a very high percentage of low-income earners.

Table F-4

Ratios of Income to Education and Occupation for the Pilipinos

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons With 4 Years College or More: 1970

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.5	2.4	3.1	0.1	0.3	0.5
Pilipino						
U.S.	0.5	0.9	2.2	0.1	0.3	0.3
Calif.	0.5	0.9	2.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Hawaii*	2.5	2.5	10.5	0.1	0.4	0.6
Other	0.3	0.7	0.9	0.1	0.2	0.3

Ratios of Persons Earning $10,000 or More to Persons in Professional, Technical and Managerial Occupations: 1970

	Males			Females		
	25-34	35-44	45-64	25-34	35-44	45-64
U.S. Total	1.1	1.5	1.6	0.2	0.3	0.4
Pilipino						
U.S.	0.6	1.0	1.9	0.1	0.3	0.4
Calif.	0.6	1.1	2.1	0.1	0.3	0.3
Hawaii*	1.7	1.7	3.4	0.1	0.4	0.5
Other	0.3	0.7	0.9	0.1	0.2	0.4

*Because of cost of living differences, incomes in Hawaii are higher.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, PC-D1; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Only 5% of the Pilipino women make over $10,000 (the same rate as Japanese and Chinese women), a pitifully small percentage for a group comprised of a higher percentage of college graduates than any other group, male or female. In every location, the ratio of Pilipino women 25-34 years old earning $10,000 or more to women in higher status occupations is only half as high as in the total female population (see Table F-4). One must conclude that these women, most of them new immigrants, are seriously underpaid and underemployed.

Expectedly, the Pilipino women in Hawaii[1/] and rural U.S. have a much lower income, 69% and 74% respectively, bringing in less than $4,000 (U.S. average is 69%).

Family Incomes

The income of Pilipino families is lower than for Chinese and Japanese families and more similar to the U.S. average, despite the fact that 61% of all Pilipino families have more than one earner, compared to only 51% nationally, and 46% of all wives in husband-wife families work, compared to only 39% nationally.

Of all Pilipino families, 14% make less than $4,000 (compared to 15% in the U.S.), and 46% make more than $10,000 (47% in the U.S.). The median income of Pilipino families, $9,318, is $300 dollars lower than the U.S. median.

Pilipino female-headed families are worse off. As we saw in earlier sections, the Pilipino female-headed family is relatively young, and the female head in such a family is less likely to have grown children who can help support the family. In addition, Pilipino women in female-headed families have the second highest percent of children under six in their households; thus child care may be an additional drain on income.

With these financial handicaps, 46% of all Pilipino female-headed families survive on incomes of less than $4,000 (U.S. average for women is 41%). Even in areas outside of Hawaii and California, where 55% of all employed women are professionals, the percentage of low-income Pilipino female-headed families (43%) is greater than nationally among all U.S. female-headed families, suggesting once more their severe underemployment.

1/ Discrepancies between women in Hawaii and women elsewhere become greater when one takes into account the higher cost of living on the Islands.

Another 20% of Pilipino female-head families nationally have incomes over $10,000, slightly above, but close to the national average. The urban areas outside California and Hawaii have the largest percentage of such families (26%) with income over $10,000. This percentage, however, is not as great as might be expected, given the proportion of Pilipino female heads in these areas employed in the higher status professional, technical and managerial jobs (49% of all employed female heads). While the ratio of Pilipino female-headed families with incomes $10,000 or over, to the number of Pilipino female family heads in higher status jobs is 1.1 to 1; the ratio in urban areas outside of Hawaii and California is only 0.8 to 1.

III. G. POVERTY CHARACTERISTICS AND SOURCES OF INCOME

Social Security

Japanese American families are receiving Social Security benefits at the level all families nationally do (20%). Chinese and Pilipino families both are getting Social Security at a far lower rate (14% for both) (see Table G-1).

The major group of Social Security recipients is the elderly and a perhaps more detailed profile of the rates at which some of the elderly are receiving Social Security benefits may be obtained by comparing the rates at which elderly household heads are receiving this type of income. Such data, however, are only available in a few cities with high concentrations of Asian Americans (see Table G-2) and not on a state- or nation-wide basis.

The local data reveal a considerable amount of variation from city to city. For the Japanese, the elderly family heads in San Francisco are receiving Social Security at a rate comparable to other elderly family heads in the city. The proportion of elderly unrelated individuals receiving such income, however, is far lower than the average for the city (64% compared to 75%). In Los Angeles, Japanese male family heads are receiving Social Security benefits at a rate 5% below the norm while elderly unrelated individuals in that city are receiving Social Security at a rate slightly above the average.

In San Francisco, the proportion of Chinese elderly family heads who are receiving Social Security is close to the proportion in the total population; the proportion of elderly unrelated individuals receiving such income is 3% lower, however. In Los Angeles the proportion of elderly male heads receiving Social Security is 13% below the average for the city and for elderly female heads, 7% below. In New York, only a little more than half of all Chinese female family heads who are elderly are receiving any type of Social Security benefits, while over three-quarters of the elderly female family heads of all races are getting this type of income.

Among the elderly in all three subgroups, it is the Pilipinos who are most underserved. Elderly Pilipino household heads of every type in both San Francisco and Los Angeles

Table G-1

Poverty Characteristics and Sources of Income of the U.S. Total and Asian American Populations, 1970

Type of Income	U.S. Total	Japanese				Chinese					Pilipinos				
		U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Other	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	S.F. Calif. Urban	N.Y.C. N.Y. Urban	U.S.	Hawaii	Calif.	Rural	Urban**
% of Families Receiving Social Security	20%	20%	22%	17%	20%	14%	20%	16%	15%	14%	14%	17%	15%	21%	11%
% of Families Receiving Public Assistance	5.3	2.7	1.8	3.6	2.9	3.6	2.7	5.2	5.9	3.4	5.7	6.3	7.5	6.5	3.1
Incidence of Poverty*									S.F.	N.Y.C.					
% of All Families	11	6	3.9	6.3	11	10	5.5	10	12	15	12	11	12	14	11
% Female Headed	33	40	28	28	48	13	31	15	11	7	29	24	31	15	32
% Female Headed Families in Poverty	32	25	13	24	37	20	18	19	16	20	40	43	41	48	36
% of All Persons	14	8	5	8	11	13	7	13	15	17	14	12	14	15	14
% Who are 65 & Over	19	21	26	16	22	13	19	13	18	17	12	19	11	20	8
% of 65 & Over in Poverty	26	19	15	17	26	28	16	27	31	40	25	33	20	31	24
% Unrelated Individuals in Poverty	37	34	34	31	37	40	38	40	37	36	30	33	30	28	31

* Per definition used by U.S. Census
** Except urban Hawaii and urban California

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population
General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1
Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Table G-2

Percent Households With Social Security Income
by Type of Head: 1970

	San Francisco				Los Angeles				New York City	
	All races	Japan-ese	Chin-ese	Pili-pino	All races	Japan-ese	Chin-ese	Pili-pino	All races	Chin-ese
% Elderly Male-Headed Families with Social Security	80%	83%	79%	67%	81%	76%	68%	71%	78%	78%
%Elderly Female-Headed Families with Social Security	81	89	80	0	79	91	72	NA	78	52
% Elderly Unrelated Individual with Social Security	75	64	72	63	75	77	76	72	75	73
% All Elderly Living as Another Relative in a Family (neither head nor wife of head)	11	29	16	17	13	27	28	15	14	17
% Families with Head That is Not Elderly with Social Security	11	11	11	5	9	11	7	6	10	11
Ratio	1.0	2.6	1.5	3.4	1.4	2.5	4.0	2.5	1.4	1.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population "Operation Leap" Tabulations (unpublished). Subject Reports:Low Income Areas in Large Cities PC(2)-9B

are receiving Social Security benefits at rates below the total populations in those cities. In San Francisco, for example, 13% fewer elderly male family heads and 12% fewer elderly unrelated individuals receive Social Security income compared to their counterparts in the total population of the city. There are few elderly female heads in the Pilipino population, but of those few none receive Social Security.

The data on households receiving Social Security are only differentiated by the age of the household head (i.e. elderly and not elderly). Data show, however, that compared to the total population, a larger proportion of Asian American elderly live as other relatives in families (Table G-2). The designated head of the family that such an elderly persons lives in is likely to be a grown son, daughter, or other relative less than 65 years of age. Since there are more Asian elderly living with younger relatives, one would expect that the proportion of Asian families with heads who are not elderly but containing a member receiving Social Security, would be greater than in the total population (reflecting the greater presence of elderly persons in Asian homes). Yet data show the proportions of younger Asian families receiving Social Security to be lower than expected. In the total population, the ratio of the percent of elderly persons living as relatives in a family 1/ to the percent of younger families receiving Social Security is 1.0 to 1 in San Francisco and 1.4 in both Los Angeles and New York City. In every case, however, there are more elderly Asian relatives per younger Asian family receiving Social Security (see Table G-2). The rates at which such families are receiving Social Security has apparently not kept up with the proportion of Asian families containing elderly people, suggesting that elderly Asians living as other relatives in families are not receiving Social Security at the rate of such persons in the total population (see Table G-2).

Social Security Income

What is clear, is that the average Social Security income that Asian American families receive is, in nearly every case, lower than the income received by families of all races. As Table G-3 illustrates, at virtually every level, (with the exception of Japanese in New York), the mean Social Security income earned by Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipino families is lower than the mean income for families in the total population. Nationally, the mean incomes for urban Japanese families is $178 lower; for urban Pilipino families, $219 lower; and for urban Chinese families, $366 lower than the mean Social Security income of the total urban population.

1/ Defined as an elderly person whose relationship in the household is neither that of the household head nor a household head's wife. Such person is most likely to be living with younger relatives.

Table G-3

Mean Social Security and Public Assistance Incomes For Families: 1969

	Social Security	Amount Difference	Public Assistance	Amount Difference
U.S. Urban				
All Races	$1676	$0	$1387	$0
Japanese	1498	-178	1332	-55
Chinese	1310	-366	1245	-142
Pilipinos	1457	-219	1358	-29
U.S. Rural*				
All Races	$1539	$0	$1062	$0
Japanese	1486	-53	1044	-18
Chinese	1225	-314	NA	NA
Pilipinos	1464	-75	1385	+323
Hawaii				
All Races	$1506	$0	$1666	$0
Japanese	1428	-78	1451	-215
Chinese	1450	-56	1627	-39
Pilipinos	1469	-37	1679	+13
California				
All Races	$1678	$0	$1465	$0
Japanese	1427	-251	1292	-173
Chinese	1291	-387	1174	-291
Pilipinos	1395	-283	1273	-192
San Francisco, Calif.				
All Races	$1673	$0	$1526	$0
Japanese	1451	-222	NA	NA
Chinese	1227	-446	1162	-364
Pilipinos	1395	-278	1273	-253
Los Angeles, Calif.				
All Races	$1620	$0	$1579	$0
Japanese	1403	-217	1358	-221
Chinese	1352	-268	1399	-180
Pilipinos	1536	-84	1045	-534
New York State				
All Races	$1717	$0	$1946	$0
Japanese	1774	+57	NA	NA
Chinese	1227	-490	1320	-626
Pilipinos	1626	-91	1336	-610

*Rural Nonfarm only - mean incomes on Rural Farm are largely not available.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 U.S. Census of Population, General Economic and Social Characteristics PC(1)-C1, C6, C13; Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G; "Operation Leap" Tabulations (unpublished)

One can only speculate upon the reasons for the rates being lower. Most elderly Asians have been in this country and in the labor market long enough to have qualified for Social Security. With the exception of those who were rural farm workers not qualifying for Social Security until recently, most Asian elderly should have qualified for income at the same level as the U.S. elderly population.

Families with Public Assistance

In the entire U.S. there is an average of 2.1 families in poverty for every one receiving public assistance. Among Asians, only Pilipino families are receiving welfare at a ratio equal to the national level. Japanese and Chinese families in poverty receive assistance at a lower rate, with 2.2 Japanese families and 2.8 Chinese families in poverty for every one getting public support. Clearly they are behind the rest of the country where public assistance is concerned.

Many factors may be responsible for this. For reasons of pride or unfamiliarity with the government institutions, many Asians may be reluctant to register for public welfare, preferring to survive on the little they have or depending upon relatives for support. Many who are not yet citizens may believe they are not entitled to welfare assistance. Newer immigrants and the elderly may not even know that this form of assistance exists. If they do, they may find language difficulties a barrier or they may be confused by the complicated procedures involved in applying for such assistance.

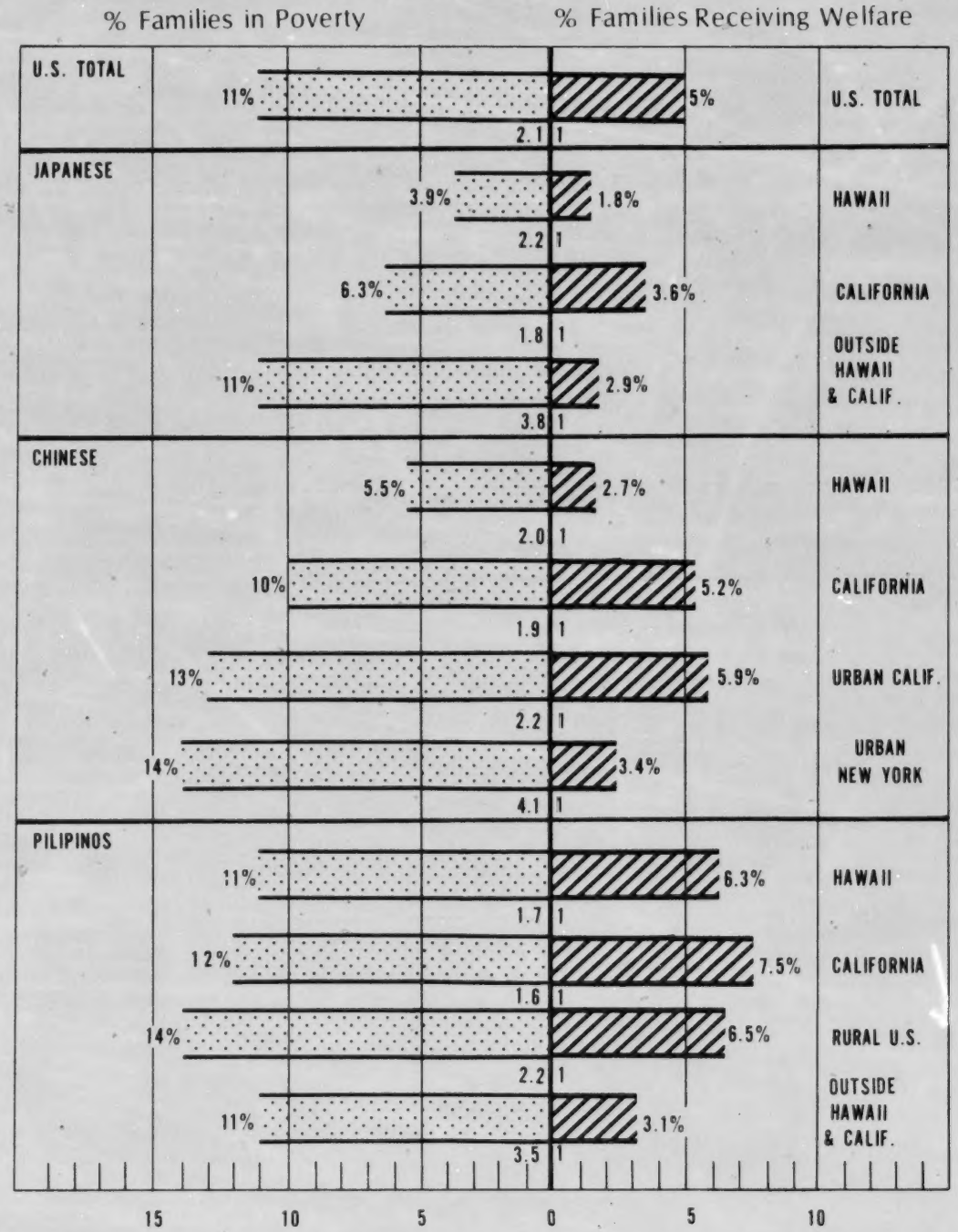
Public Assistance in Local Areas

The levels of families in poverty and families receiving welfare in selected areas for the three Asian subgroups are depicted in Chart G-a. City level data for families and unrelated individuals in poverty are shown in Table G-4. The data show that locally, in some areas, the gap between Asian families in poverty and Asian families on welfare is greater still.

For the Japanese, the ratio of families in poverty to families on public assistance is poorest in areas outside Hawaii and California. In those areas there are 3.8 Japanese families with incomes below poverty for every one family with welfare. Local figures from Los Angeles show, that in that city, the proportion of Japanese poverty families and unrelated individuals receiving public assistance is only a third the proportion in the total population in the city. A mere 12%

CHART G-a

ASIAN AMERICAN POVERTY AND WELFARE DATA FOR SELECTED AREAS



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population: General Social and Economic Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-C1 Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G

Table G-4

Percent of all Poverty Households Receiving Public Assistance: 1970

	All Families	Female Head Families	Unrelated Individuals
San Francisco, Calif.			
All Races	31%	48%	13%
Japanese	NA	NA	NA
Chinese	10	19	14
Pilipino	19	NA	8
Los Angeles, Calif.			
All Races	34	51	13
Japanese	12	37	4
Chinese	5	NA	9
Pilipino	8	NA	4
New York County, N. Y.			
All Races	39	58	15
Chinese*	2	0	12 **

*Census Tracts in and near New York's Chinatown only.
**Includes 16% Blacks.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, "Operation Leap" Tabulations (unpublished); Subject Reports: Low Income Areas in Large Cities PC(2)-9B

of all Japanese families in poverty and 4% of unrelated individuals in poverty are getting public assistance compared to 34% of all families in poverty and 13% of all unrelated individuals receiving public assistance.

Ratios of families in poverty to families receiving public assistance among Chinese are particularly imbalanced in urban New York State which has the highest proportion of new immigrants and the largest percentage of families in poverty of any Asian group. There is only one family receiving welfare in that state to every 4.1 families in poverty.

Data for San Francisco, Los Angeles and New York show that compared to impoverished families in the total populations of those cities, only a small percentage of the Chinese poor are receiving welfare. (One-third as many in San Francisco, one-seventh as many in Los Angeles and one-twentieth as many in New York.) In San Francisco, the rate at which Chinese unrelated individuals in poverty are receiving welfare appears to be up to the average level for the city. In Los Angeles, however, the proportion of welfare recipients among the poor is 4% below the city average and in New York, 3% below the city average.

For the Pilipino population, the ratio of families in poverty to families receiving welfare are seriously imbalanced in urban areas outside Hawaii and California (3.5 to 1). Also, local data for San Francisco and Los Angeles, indicate that in these two cities, the proportion of Pilipino families in poverty receiving public assistance is not comparable to total populations. While 31% of all poverty families in San Francisco are on welfare, only 19% of Pilipino poverty families are. 13% of impoverished unrelated individuals in that city receive welfare, but a mere 8% of Pilipino unrelated individuals who are poor receive this type of assistance. The gap is even greater in Los Angeles where only a third as many impoverished unrelated individuals are on welfare compared to the total population (see Table G-4).

Public Assistance Income

As with Social Security income, the average public assistance income that Asian American families receive is, in nearly

every case,1/ lower than the income received by families of all races (see Table G-3). The difference for Japanese families is particularly great in Los Angeles where welfare income for Japanese families is $221 lower than the average for all the families in the city. For Chinese and Pilipino families with welfare incomes the income differential is greatest in New York State. (The average income for Chinese is $626 below the New York State average and the average for Pilipino families is $610 below the state average. Data on Japanese families are not available.)

Poverty of Families

Japanese

Nationally, the rate of poverty among Japanese families (6%) is far lower than the U.S. average (11%). In Hawaii and California, the rates are lower still; only 4% Japanese in Hawaii and 6% in California are in poverty. A quarter (24%) of all Japanese families live outside of Hawaii and California; the rate of poverty among these families is up to 11%--equal to the U.S. average.

There is greater poverty among the foreign-born Japanese compared to the rest of the Japanese population. Of all foreign-born Japanese families, a quarter of whom are elderly, 17% had incomes under poverty level in 1970 and a very high 22% of all families with foreign-born heads who were elderly had poverty incomes.

1/ The only exceptions are the higher mean public assistance incomes earned by Pilipino families in rural areas and in Hawaii. A factor to consider here, however, is the very much larger size of Pilipino families. While the average size of a U.S. rural non-farm family is 3.68 persons, the average size of a Pilipino rural non-farm family is 4.50 persons. The average size of a Pilipino family in Hawaii is 4.80 persons. With the larger number of dependents, one would expect the average public assistance income also to be greater. The figure is further inflated because 69% of all Pilipino non-farm families live in Hawaii where the cost of living is at least 25% greater than in most other parts of the country.

Of all Japanese families in poverty, 40% are female headed, although the percentage of Japanese families with female heads that are in poverty (25%) is lower than the U.S. average (32%). But in the areas outside of Hawaii and California, nearly half (48%) of all Japanese poverty families are female headed and the percent of female-headed families in poverty is up to 37%, comparable to other ethnic minority groups. Japanese outside of Hawaii and California do not receive public assistance at the same rate as in the two states, yet their rate of poverty is much higher. Clearly, poverty is still a problem for Japanese families and a greater effort must be made to reach these people.

Chinese

The national rate of poverty among Chinese families (10%) is close to the rate for the total U.S. (11%). In Hawaii, only half as many Chinese families are poor (6%); but in New York City, the rate of poverty is much higher (15%). To make matters worse, at the same time that poverty is so great in New York, the percentage of families receiving public assistance in the city (3.4%) is much lower than the U.S. national average (5.3%).

Poverty among families headed by females is not as great a problem for the Chinese. Only 13% of all Chinese poverty families are headed by females. Only 20% of all Chinese female-headed families live in poverty while 32% of all female-headed families in the U.S. do. Unlike most other groups, the close link between female-headed families and poverty does not exist for the Chinese.

Pilipinos

Of all Pilipino families, 12% are in poverty. This is slightly more than the U.S. average (11%). In rural areas, 14% of all Pilipino families are poor. The problem of poverty is particularly acute for Pilipino families headed by females, 40% of which are in poverty. The rates for such families in Hawaii (43%) and rural areas (48%) are higher still.

With the high percentage of female-headed families with dependent children, 1/ fewer of these families have the benefit of adult children who can contribute to the support of the family.

1/ 73% of the Pilipino families with female heads in Hawaii and 72% of such families in rural areas have children under 18, as compared with 69% for Pilipinos nationally and 55% for all female-headed families in the U.S.

Poverty of Individuals

The rates of poverty among individuals in the Asian American populations are similar to the rates found among families. Pilipinos have the highest rate of individual poverty of all three subgroups; at 14%, it is the same as the U.S. average. The rate of Chinese persons in poverty (13%) is just under the U.S. average and the rate for Japanese persons is the lowest at 8%.

Poverty of Elderly Asians

Despite a greater tendency among Asian families to look after surviving elders, as evidenced in rates of extended families, the rate of poverty among Asian elderly is as serious as it is for elderly in the country as a whole.

A fifth (19%) of all Japanese, 65 years old and over, are poor--a substantial proportion though less than the U.S. average (26%). In areas outside Hawaii and California, the percentage of elderly Japanese who are poor (26%) is the same as the U.S. average. Poverty, however, is very much higher among Japanese elderly in rural areas who live without their families.

The percentage of poor among elderly Pilipinos nationally is, at 25%, about the same as the U.S. average. The problems are worse in Hawaii and rural U.S., where about one-third of all elderly (33% and 31% respectively) are poor.

Poverty among Chinese elderly is the highest for all Asians. Nationally, 28% of all the Chinese elderly are poor. In San Francisco, 31% are poor and in New York City the rate is a very high 40%.

Poverty among Asians is not just a problem of the elderly, however. Since the percentage of elderly in the total populations is lower than the U.S. average, the percentage of elderly in the poor population is also lower. Only one-fifth or 21% of all Japanese poor are elderly. Elderly constitute only 12% and 13% respectively of the Pilipino and Chinese poverty populations.

Unrelated Individuals

The poverty rate among unrelated individuals, those persons who live alone or without their families, has always been high. Nationally, 37% of all such unrelated individuals live in poverty. Among the Japanese and Pilipinos, the rate of poverty in this population is somewhat lower at 34% and 30% respectively.

However, the rate among the Chinese (40%) surpasses the U.S. total rate. Among the elderly who are poor, a very large percentage are unrelated individuals. In the U.S. as a whole, 55% of all persons 65 and over who live in poverty live alone. The rates are even higher among the Asians, with 58% of the Japanese and Chinese elderly poor and 63% of the Pilipino elderly poor living alone. Among Chinese and Pilipinos this is probably due to the immigration patterns that consigned men to an unmarried and childless status. Among Japanese, however, a majority of the elderly poor who live alone are women, many of whom have been widowed.

The rate of poverty among such elderly unrelated individuals is particularly high in rural areas. Nationally 65% of all Japanese elderly unrelated individuals and 79% of all Pilipino elderly unrelated individuals living in rural areas are in poverty.

In the total U.S. population, nearly half (49%) of all the poor, unrelated individuals are elderly. Surprisingly for Asians,the percentage of elderly in that population is much lower. Only 31% of the Japanese, 24% of the Chinese, and 28% of the Pilipino poor,living as unrelated individuals,are elderly. There is a much larger percentage of younger Asian unrelated individuals living in poverty than for other groups. The people that fall into this category include those immigrants who have entered the country alone intending, perhaps, to earn enough money to bring their families over. Among the Pilipinos, the lack of women has led many males to remain bachelors (including males under 65). Other persons in this category may be students who are barely supporting themselves through extended years of education and women who have not married or are apart from their families.

Housing

A major problem that is manifest in many Asian American households both in poverty and not in poverty is that they are living in substandard overcrowded housing (see Table G-5). Compared to the total U.S. population a greater percentage of the housing units in all three Asian American subgroups nationally are considered overcrowded (i.e. with 1.01 or more persons per room), although the problem is greater in the Pilipino and Chinese populations in the United States than among the Japanese.

Overcrowding is most acute among Pilipinos, 28% of whose households, contain more than one person to a room. 40% of all Pilipino families in Honolulu, 30% in San Francisco, and 27% in Los Angeles live under such substandard conditions.

Table G-5
Substandard Housing Among
Asian Americans in Selected Areas

	U.S. Total	Japanese		Chinese		Pilipinos	
		Total	Poverty	Total	Poverty	Total	Poverty
Total U.S.							
% overcrowded (1.01 or more persons per room)	8	9	NA	20	NA	28	NA
% units without complete plumbing	7	4	NA	10	NA	9	NA
Los Angeles, Calif.							
% overcrowded (1.01 or more persons per room)	8%	7	9%	23%	23%	27%	31%
% units without complete plumbing	2	3	8	5	5	4	3
San Francisco, Calif.							
% overcrowded (1.01 or more persons per room)	6	5	7	24	28	30	24
% units without complete plumbing	8	5	5	20	41	11	28
New York, New York							
% overcrowded (1.01 or more persons per room)	10	12	NA	30	37*	23	NA
% units without complete plumbing	3	7	NA	22	NA	7	NA
Honolulu, Hawaii							
% overcrowded (1.01 or more persons per room)	18	18	NA	19	NA	40	NA
% units without complete plumbing	4	2	NA	4	NA	17	NA

* Data for area in and near New York City's Chinatown, all income levels included.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Pilipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G; "Operation Leap" Tabulations (unpublished); Housing Characteristics, U.S. Summary HC(1) -A1.

A fifth of all Chinese housing in the United States is regarded as overcrowded. The conditions for the Chinese are worst in New York City where a third of all housing units contains more than 1.01 persons per room. Additionally, a fifth of all Chinese housing in New York and San Francisco is without adequate plumbing.

The tendency to live as extended families, as well as the arrival of new immigrants, increase Asian housing needs. Existing housing services, however, have apparently failed to meet this need. Yet maintaining the situation as it now exists would clearly be detrimental to the health and safety of many Asians in the United States.

III. H. KOREAN AMERICANS

The 1970 Census represents the first time that Koreans were enumerated as a separate ethnic group. In that year, 70,000 were reported, making them the fifth largest Asian subgroup in the United States 1/ according to the U.S. Census. 2/ By 1980 the Korean population is likely to be the fourth largest Asian subgroup.

Currently, Koreans are the second largest Asian group immigrating into the United States. While the rate of increase of the largest group, the Pilipinos, has leveled off somewhat, the rate of increase among the Koreans still rises steadily (see Chart A-a, in Section A. Recent Immigration). During the first three years since the 1970 Census was taken, another 56,100 Koreans immigrated to the U.S. (see Table H-1) an 80% increase over the 1970 population. If this same rate of immigration is maintained for the rest of this decade, there will be over a quarter of a million Koreans in the country by 1980, 3.6 times the number reported in the 1970 Census. 3/ Population characteristics for Korean Americans are presented in Table H-2.

The very sharp increase in Korean immigration in the three years since the 1970 Census has resulted in major changes in population that may severely limit the validity of the 1970 data.

1/ Unless specified otherwise, data on Koreans are taken from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G, Tables 48 and 49 (a 2-page report on the social and economic characteristics of Koreans in the U.S.). Some information is also drawn from Detailed Characteristics, PC(1)-D Series, U.S. Summary and by individual states. Total Census figures on Koreans vary from 69,510 to 70,598 (in both cases excluding the State of Alaska) due to the limited size of the sample. In a separate Census sample, 149 persons in Alaska were identified as being of Korean ancestry.

2/ The four largest being the Japanese, the Chinese, the Pilipinos, and the Hawaiians.

3/ U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1970-1973), Table 9.

Table H-1

Changes in the Korean Population Since the 1970 Census

	U.S.	Honolulu SMSA	Los Angeles SMSA	New York SMSA
1970 Korean Population	70,000	8,939	9,395	4,685
% Foreign Born 1970	54%	21%	62%	63%
Koreans Immigrating				
FY 1971	14,300	442	1,186	1,202
FY 1972	18,900	696	1,742	1,937
FY 1973	22,900	1,060	2,052	1,660
Net Increase*	80%	25%	57%	97%
% Foreign Born 1973**	74%	37%	75%	82%

*Net increase can only be taken as a low estimate as Immigration data do not take into consideration Asian aliens residing in the cities whose visa statuses are those of non-immigrants, but subject to change.

**Percent foreign born in 1973 are calculated on the assumption that all additional Koreans that have immigrated are of foreign birth and that minimal numbers of Korean infants were born in each place during the three years since the Census.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Pilipinos in the United States; Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports (1970-1973).

Population Characteristics of the U.S. Total Population and Korean Americans, 1970

	U. S. Total	Koreans			
			SMSA's		
		U.S.	Honolulu	Los Angeles	New York
Population Distribution					
Number	203.2 million	70,000	8,938	9,395	4,685
% of All Sub-Group	100%	100%	13%	13%	7%
% of Group w/Mother Tongue Other Than English	21%	76%	NA	NA	NA
Nativity					
% Native Born	95	46	79	38	37
% Born in Different State	32	27	5	28	27
Age Distribution					
% Under 18	34	35	37	32	32
% 65 and Over	10	3	7 (Hawaii)	3 (Calif.)	3 (N.Y.State)
Education Completed (25 Yrs. old & Over)					
% 8 or less Years School Completed	26	19	19	12	13
% H.S. Grads	55	71	68	83	81
% College Grads	11	36	15	31	53
Enrollment					
% 3-4 Year Olds in School	13	22	36	34	30
% 18-24 Year Olds in School: Male	30	51	42	36	45
Female	29	36	37	46	30
Labor Force					
% in Labor Force:					
Male	77	76	78	76	79
Female	41	42	53	50	41
Income Characteristics					
% Persons w/Incomes Under $4,000: Male	34	36	26	31	24
Female	69	64	55	55	46
% Persons w/Incomes $10,000 & Over: Male	25	28	39	23	35
Female	3.1	4.8	6.9	3.7	12.7
% Female-Headed Families	11	15	18	13	5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population: Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1 Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G

Despite these limitations, it is assumed that the characteristics and profiles suggested by this analysis may still reflect some portions of if not all of the Korean populations in this country.

The Koreans in the U.S. are a more dispersed population than other Asians. According to the Census, 44% of all Koreans live in the western region, 20% in the Northeast, 19% in the Midwest, and 17% in the South. The majority of earlier Korean immigrants, who came to this country at the beginning of the century, and their native-born descendants have concentrated mostly in the West, in the states of Hawaii and California. As a result, one-half of all Koreans born in the U.S. live in the western part of the U.S.

As we have seen in Section B, Population, the patterns of settlement by the more recent Korean immigrants have been diffuse. For example, among Korean immigrants immigrating between 1965 and 1973 (see Table B-2), less than a third went to states in the West. The remaining immigrants are almost evenly distributed in all the other regions of the country--a pattern unlike that of the other Asian immigrant populations.

This pattern of settlement is reflected in the distribution of foreign-born Koreans in the United States. In 1970, only one-third of all foreign-born Koreans lived in the West.

Of all Koreans born in the United States, 60% are under 18, their numbers including third-generation Koreans as well as children of more recent immigrants. In Honolulu, 79% of Korean residents are native born (perhaps only 63% by 1973), by far the highest proportion for any part of the country, and of those, only 5% were not born in the State of Hawaii.[1]

1/After 1907, immigration from Hawaii to the Mainland by Koreans was prohibited and the population on the Islands remained cut off from other Korean communities in the U.S. While 5% of all recent Korean immigrants went to Hawaii, the population in that state consists largely of long-term residents who span several generations in the state. Cf. Shin, Linda, "Koreans in America, 1903-1954," in Amerasia Journal for a history of the early Koreans in Hawaii and elsewhere in the U.S.

Nationally, the proportion of the Korean population still under 18 (35%) is about the same as it is for the entire U.S. population (34%). The proportion is slightly higher in Honolulu (37%), where the largely U.S.-born Korean population tends to have larger families. In 1970, only 32% of the Korean population in Los Angeles and New York were under 18 (with the immigration of more Korean familes, that proportion may have changed).

A great many of those younger Koreans were born in Korea. Over a third (36%) of all Koreans immigrating since 1970 were 19 and under when they arrived, and most of them were 9 years of age or under (see Table H-3).

Table H-3

Age Distribution of Korean Immigrants at Time of Arrival:

1970-1973

Age	Males		Females	
	Total Number	% Distribution	Total Number	% Distribution
Total	21,193	100%	34,907	100%
Under 5	3,139	15	5,008	14
5-9	2,429	11	2,703	8
10-19	2,883	14	3,819	11
20-29	4,019	19	14,028	40
30-39	6,363	30	6,410	18
40-49	1,526	7	1,419	4
50-59	494	2	811	2
60 and Over	340	2	709	2

Source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service Annual Reports (1970-1973).

Because many of these child immigrants are of school age, the language problem they face as they enter American schools becomes a major handicap. In fact, English language facility is a major problem for all Koreans, hampering the ability of the adults to obtain a good job as well as the performance of children in school. Of all Koreans in the country in 1970, 76% listed Korean as their mother tongue (58% of the native-born population and 91% of the foreign-born). 1/

Only 3% of the Korean population is elderly, less than one-third the proportion of elderly in the United States population as a whole. Recent immigrants have left their elderly relatives behind in Korea. In Hawaii, where the Korean population has been present for some time, the proportion of elderly (7%) is closer to the national averages.

1/ U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-1A, Table 19. According to this source, 53,500 Koreans had Korean as their mother tongue in 1970. One can assume that virtually 100% of the Koreans immigrating to the U.S. since then also have Korean as a mother tongue. On that assumption, the number of Koreans with a mother tongue of Korean would have doubled since 1970.

The educational achievements of the Korean population in the U. S. are quite high, especially in areas where Koreans are largely recent immigrants. Preference in the granting of immigration visas has been given to those Koreans with special skills and good educational backgrounds, resulting in this high educational profile. About 20% of the adult Koreans in the country have had eight or fewer years of school compared with 26% of all persons in this country. The percentages of such undereducated persons are much lower in those cities where the Korean populations are largely recent immigrants. In Los Angeles, only 12% have eight or fewer years of school and in New York, 13% have.

In the country as a whole, 55% of all adults have completed high school. Among Koreans, 71% have (over 80% in Los Angeles and New York).

Perhaps the most startling educational characteristic for the Korean population, however, is the percentage of college educated in the population. Nationally, over one-third of their population (36%) have a college education, compared to 11% in the country as a whole. In Hawaii, where the population is largely native born, only 15% are college educated--a rate much closer to that of the population at large. But in New York, with its higher percentage of immigrant Koreans, 53% of all adults have had 4 or more years of college--a rate five times the rate for the U.S. total population.

Census records some 1,700 Korean males and 1,600 females between the ages of 18 and 24 as enrolled in college in the United States in 1970. There is a great imbalance in the rates these number reflect, however. While the 1,800 males represent 51% of all Korean males in their age group, the 1,600 females enrolled are only 26% of their sex in this age group. There are, in fact, many more young women in the Korean population of this country. According to Table H-4, 66% of all Korean immigrants since 1970 were female. Hence, the enrolled females are a small proportion of the total 18-24 year old Korean female population. 1/

1/ Women particularly outnumber men among immigrating Koreans 20-29 years old. Many of these women are so-called "war brides" married to U.S. servicemen. The high proportion of Korean war brides can be documented by the fact that while the 1970 Census reported 12,000 Korean male family heads, it reported 18,000 Korean wives of family heads. At least a third of the Korean wives, then, are married to non-Koreans.

Table H-4

Sex Distribution of Korean Immigrants: 1970-1973

Age	% Total	% Male	% Female
Total	100%	34%	66%
Under 5	100	37	63
5-9	100	47	53
10-19	100	41	59
20-29	100	18	82
30-39	100	48	52
40-49	100	55	45
50-59	100	37	63
60 and over	100	32	68

Source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Reports, 1970-1973.

Interestingly, the rates of college enrollment are reversed in Los Angeles, where a very high 46% of all Korean women 18-24 years old are in school and only 36% of Korean males are. Data are not available to enable one to ascertain whether the 18-24 year old Korean population in Los Angeles is largely foreign-born or U.S.-born. The many educational institutions located in the Los Angeles area, coupled with the fact that that city has the largest Korean community in the U.S., could possibly lead more Korean women to go there for their education.

The labor force participation rate of Koreans, nationally, is close to the level for the total population. 76% of all Korean men are in the work force compared to 77% of all men who are, and 42% of Korean women are in the labor force compared to 41% of all women in the country. This participation rate is much lower, however, than levels for women in other Asian subgroups.

Only in Greater Honolulu (53%) and Los Angeles (56%) do labor force participation rates of the Korean women approach levels of other Asian women.

Over one-third of the Korean 3-4 year olds in Honolulu and Los Angeles, where labor force participation rates of Korean women are higher, are enrolled in school. These rates are higher than rates among other Asian subgroups in these cities where the labor force participation rates of their female population are also high. For example, in the Greater Los Angeles area, 50% of all Korean women are working and 34% of their 3-4 year olds are in school. Among the Japanese, 53% of the women are working and only 30% are in school.

However, it is the Korean children of foreign-born parents, many of them living outside these two cities, who most need access to preschool programs to assist in their adjustment to classes taught in the English language. The rate of Korean 3-4 year olds attending preschool programs outside of the two cities is down to 20%.

Tabulations from the Census Bureau provided no data on the occupations of Korean workers in 1970. The overwhelming majority of those Koreans who reported an occupation when they immigrated to the country (see Table H-5) indicated highly skilled backgrounds as professional, technical and managerial workers. As has been shown in Section E. Employment, there has been a tendency for newly immigrant workers with such backgrounds to be unable to find comparable employment in the U.S. and to be forced to work in lower skilled, lower paying jobs.

Some indication of the degree to which the Koreans are underemployed can be determined through an analysis of the percentage of persons earning $10,000 or more compared to the percentage with 4 years college or more.

In 1970, the income levels of Korean males and females were close to national levels. The percentage of those earning under $4,000 and over $10,000 were close to the figures for the total U.S. population, with persons in Honolulu and New York City earning the largest incomes on the average. However, when viewed from the perspective of the high proportions of college educated in the Korean population, the earnings of Koreans in the United States are much lower than those of the total U.S. populations.

Table H-5

Occupational Distribution of Korean Immigrants at Time of Arrival: 1965-1973

All Korean Immigrants Reporting an Occupation*	100%
Professional, Technical and Managerial Workers	72
Clerical and Sales Workers	7
Craftsmen and Operatives	12
Laborers, Farm & Nonfarm	1
Service Workers, Including Domestics	8

* Represents 27% of all Korean immigrants. The remainder, including housewives and children, either did not have an occupation or did not report one.

Source: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service Annual Reports 1965-1973.

The data are not fine enough to permit an analysis by age and sex. The table below, however, shows that as with other Asian populations, proportionate to the number of college graduates in their population the incomes of Korean workers lag behind those of the rest of the population.

Table H-6

Ratio of Persons Earning $10,000 or More* to Persons with a College Education:** 1970

U.S.	1.4
. Japanese	1.2
Chinese	0.7
Pilipinos	0.4
Koreans-U.S.	0.8
Koreans-Honolulu SMSA	1.7
Koreans-Los Angeles SMSA	0.3
Koreans-New York SMSA	0.4
Koreans-Other	0.3

* 16 years old and over.

** 25 years old and over.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1

While in the total U.S. population there are 1.4 workers earning $10,000 or more in 1970 to each person with a college degree, for every Korean college graduate there were only 0.8 Koreans with an income of this amount. Only in Honolulu where there is a higher cost of living and higher proportion of U.S.-born Koreans do proportions of medium and high income earners proportionate to the number of college graduates in the population exceed the total U.S. population. Elsewhere the proportions are much lower.

The proportion of Korean families in the U.S. headed by females (15%) is higher than the proportion nationally (11%). The rate in Honolulu (18%) is particularly high. However, the proportion of female-headed families is also high in areas outside Honolulu, Los Angeles, and New York (14% are female headed families). The female heads in Honolulu, where there is a higher proportion of elderly Koreans, may include a certain proportion of older women who have been widowed. The female heads in Honolulu and elsewhere, however, may include a large percentage of Korean "war brides" who have become heads of their families. 1/ Others may include women who immigrated with dependents.

A quarter of the female-headed families in Honolulu, Los Angeles, and New York have children under six, but outside these three cities, 47% of the female-headed families do. Obviously, the presence of young children in such a family is a great burden on a woman who must find employment as well as locate inexpensive child care for children not old enough to go to school.

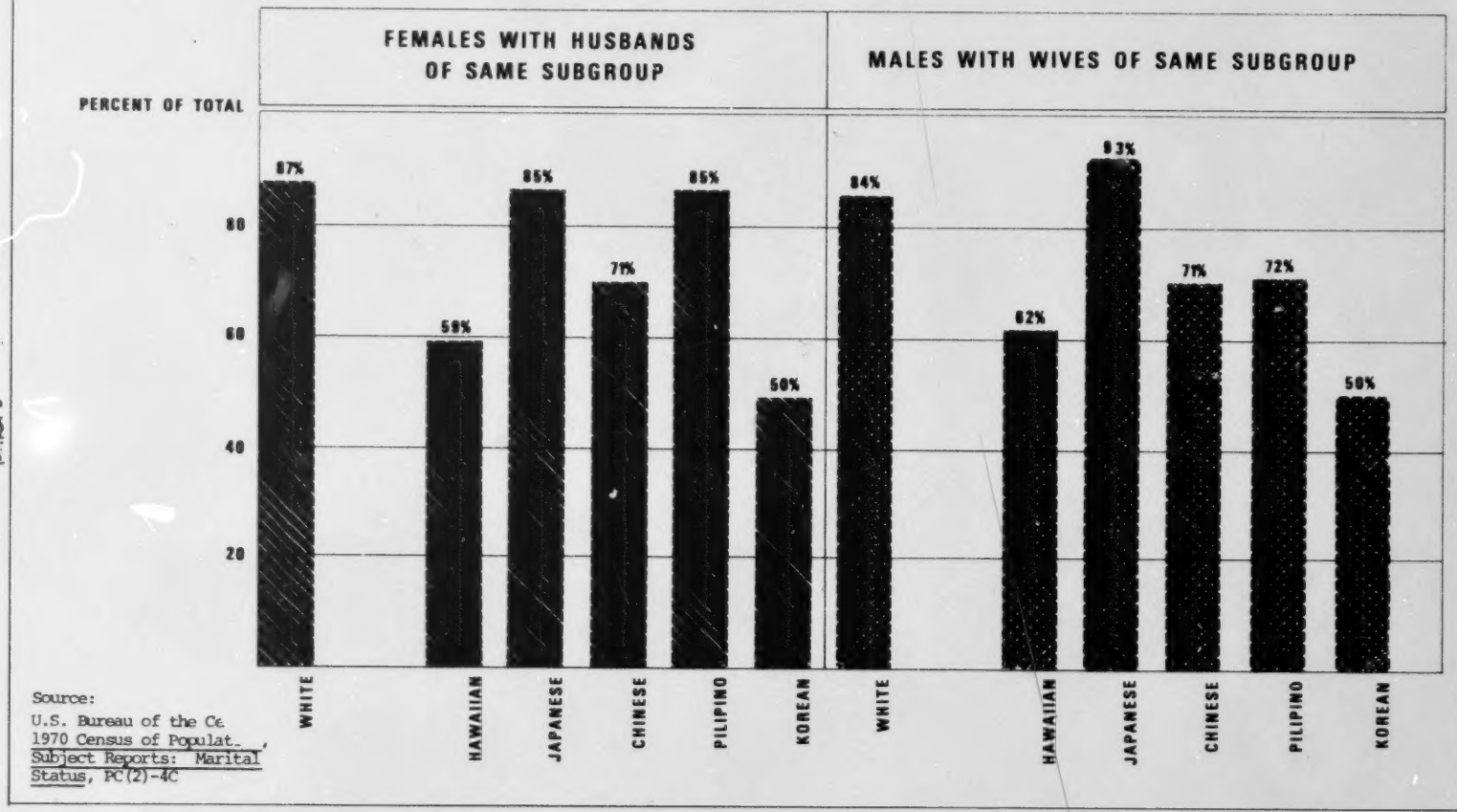
An interesting sidelight concerning the Korean population living in the State of Hawaii is that, among all the major racial subgroups in that state, Koreans have the highest rates of marriage to spouses of other subgroups (see Chart H-a). Because of their small numbers and isolation, there is perhaps a trend towards assimilation through intermarriage. Koreans in Hawaii have a 50% intermarriage rate. Of those Korean women not married to Korean males, over half have white husbands. Of those Korean men not married to Korean women, one-third are married to Japanese women, another third to white women, and one-fifth to Hawaiians. 2/ Although Hawaiians traditionally have a high rate of intermarriage, the Korean rate of intermarriage is even higher and because of this, the Korean population could be assimilated into a larger Asian-Hawaiian culture before too many more generations pass.

1/ See Section C for a discussion of war brides and female heads of household in the Japanese population. The situation described is similar in the Korean population.

2/ U.S. Bureau of the Census 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Marital Status, PC(2)-4C, Table 13.

CHART H-a

MARRIAGE WITHIN OWN SUBGROUP IN HAWAII



Source:
U.S. Bureau of the Ce
1970 Census of Populat
Subject Reports: Marital Status, PC(2)-4C

III. I. HAWAIIANS

In 1970 there were nearly 100,000 Hawaiians in the United States, 1/ 72,000 in the State of Hawaii itself, 14,000 in California and another 13,000 elsewhere. 2/ Two-thirds of the Hawaiians in the State of Hawaii live in the greater Honolulu area, and just about all of them were born in that state. Three-quarters of Hawaiians living in California, on the other hand, were born elsewhere (mostly in Hawaii presumably), indicating that their migration to the mainland has been quite recent--within a single generation. Population characteristics for Hawaiians are presented in Table I-1.

The birth rate of Hawaiians is higher than for most Asian populations in America. In Hawaii, 4,506 children have been born to every 1,000 35-to-44 year old women who have ever married--an average 4.5 children per woman. Because of this high birth rate, the proportion of young people in the Hawaiian population is also high. Of their population nationally, 42% are under 18 (45% in Hawaii). The percentage of children among Hawaiians living in California, however, is much lower, at 35%.

Being a native-born population, the age composition of the population has not been influenced by migrations. Yet the percentage of elderly in the population (4%) is less than half the proportion in the overall U. S. population (10%). Such a small population

1/ Unless specified otherwise, data on Hawaiians are taken from U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G, Tables 46 and 47. (A 2-page report on the social and economic characteristics of Hawaiians in the United States.) According to this source there were 99,958 Hawaiians in the U. S. excluding Alaska.

2/ According to the Census, there were 11,000 Hawaiians living in Hawaii in 1960. However, the figures are not exactly comparable to 1970 data since in the earlier count, persons who were part Hawaiian were enumerated under a separate category. In the 1970 Census, persons of mixed descent were asked to enter the race with which they identified themselves.

Table I-1

Population Characteristics of the U.S. Total Population and Hawaiians, 1970

	U. S. Total	Hawaiians		
		U.S.	Calif.	Hawaii
Population Distribution				
Number	203.2 million	99,958	14,454	72,395
% of All Subgroup	100%	100%	14%	72%
Nativity				
% Native Born	95%	99	99	99.7
% Born in Different State	32	21	73	2
Age Distribution				
% Under 18	34	42	35	45
% 65 and Over	9.9	4.0	(U.S. ex.Ha.) 4.2	4.0
% Female-Headed Families	11	13	11	14
Education				
% 8 or less Years School Completed (25 Yrs. and Over)	26	25	15	27
% H.S. Grads (25 Yrs. and Over)	55	53	65	50
% 3-4-Year Olds in School	13	24	21	24
% 18-24 Year-Olds in School: Male	38	24	27	22
Female	29	25	23	21
Labor Force				
% in Labor Force:				
Male	77	78	84	76
Female	41	49	51	48
Income Characteristics				
% Persons w/Incomes Under $4,000: Male	34	33	32	30
Female	69	64	59	63
% Persons w/Incomes $10,000 & Over Male	25	22	18	24
Female	3.1	2.9	3.6	3.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos in the United States, PC(2)-1G
Detailed Characteristics, United States Summary, PC(1)-D1

of elderly cannot be explained merely by the relatively larger numbers of young people, but indicates also that the life span of the Hawaiian is much lower than for the greater population as a whole and that fewer Hawaiians are surviving into their old age.

While the national figures on the educational attainments of Hawaiians show comparability to the levels reached by the total U. S. population, a breakdown by state shows that the Hawaiians in California are, in fact, doing somewhat better and the Hawaiians in Hawaii are doing somewhat worse. In California, 65% of the Hawaiians are high school graduates, and only 15% have had eight or fewer years of school (compared with 55% of all adults in the U. S. population who have attended high school and 26% with only eight or fewer years of education). In Hawaii, only 50% of the Hawaiians have finished high school and 27% have had eight or fewer years of school. 1/

The rate of college enrollment by Hawaiians 18 to 24 year olds is lower than the rate for the country as a whole. One-third of all 18-24 year olds in the U. S. are enrolled in school, but less than 25% of the Hawaiians are. Compared with other Asian populations in Hawaii, the proportion of Hawaiians in college is lower also. In that state, 45% of the Japanese and Chinese young adults are in school as are 39% of the Koreans. Only the enrollment rate of Pilipinos living in Hawaii (25%) is about as low as it is for the Hawaiians.

The work history of Hawaiians differs from the stereotype, for they work just as hard as the rest of the population. The rate of labor force participation by Hawaiian males in Hawaii (76%) is just about at the rate for all males in the country (77%) and, for women, much higher than all women (48% compared to 41%). In California, rates of labor force participation by Hawaiians are higher still: 84% of the males and 51% of the females. Unemployment among Hawaiian males is higher in that state too, (8% compared to 6% of all men in that state who are unemployed). The rate of unemployment among Hawaiian women in California, at 6%, is lower than the 7% rate among all California women.

1/ As noted, nearly three-fourths of the Hawaiians in California had migrated to that state from Hawaii, indicating a rather recent movement by Hawaiians to the mainland. Under these circumstances, it is possible that most of the adult Hawaiians in California had completed their schooling in Hawaii. The contrast in levels of schooling completed may result from the fact that the somewhat more educated Hawaiians have been more mobile--leading them to migrate to the mainland. The current high school retention rates of young Hawaiians 14-17 years old are the same in both Hawaii and California (91%). Assuming that the rates have been about equal in recent years, a very likely explanation for the higher concentration of high school educated Hawaiians in California would be a migration of such persons from the Islands.

Comparisons of incomes between persons living in Hawaii and persons living elsewhere in the United States cannot be made without taking into consideration the fact that the cost of living on the Islands is about 25% higher than elsewhere. Better comparisons may be made, therefore, between the Hawaiians and other ethnic populations in that state.

The proportion of Hawaiians surviving on a low income ($4,000 a year or less) is greater than those in the Japanese population in Hawaii (30% of the Hawaiian males compared to 26% of the Japanese males, and 63% of the Hawaiian females compared to 54% of the Japanese females earn this little), but in income, the Pilipinos in Hawaii are doing the worst, as 36% of their males and 69% of their females are earning this little money. In California, the 59% of Hawaiian women in the low income levels ($4,000 or less per year) is less than in Hawaii (63%), despite the 25% cost-of-living differential.

In Hawaii, the one-quarter (24%) of Hawaiian males making an income of $10,000 or above is less than the percentage of Japanese (33%) making this much. However, the rate of Hawaiian males earning over $10,000 is twice the rate of Pilipino males, only 11% of whom earn this much money. In California, only 18% of the Hawaiian men are making over $10,000. Median income for Hawaiian men in Hawaii ($6,485) is lower than for Japanese or Chinese men in Hawaii, but higher than for Pilipino or Korean men in that state.

Median income for Hawaiian women repeats the same pattern but at $2,931 this income is very low considering the higher cost of living for those in Hawaii. For Hawaiian women, as for all women, pay levels are very low and less than 3% of Hawaiian women nationally make more than $10,000.

The percentage of Hawaiian families having a woman as a head is slightly higher than the percentage of female-headed families in the total U. S. population. Of all Hawaiian families in the State of Hawaii, 14% are female-headed. Within these families, the proportion with children(77%) is also higher than the U. S. average, in keeping with previous evidence that Hawaiians tend to have larger families. In California, the percentage of Hawaiian families having only a female parent is at the national level of 11%, but the proportion of such families with young children under 18 (81%) is far higher. Of the same group in California, 41% have children under 6 compared to only 21% of such families in the U.S. total population suggesting that the

Hawaiian families that have migrated to the mainland are recent arrivals and more of them are of child-rearing age.

With the large number of children and the higher labor force participation rates by the female population, adequate child care is a major concern and 24% of all Hawaiian 3-4 year olds are enrolled in school, compared to only 13% in the entire population.

In the State of Hawaii, Hawaiians are second only to the Koreans with respect to rates of marriage to persons outside of their race. About 40% of both Hawaiian males and females are married to non-Hawaiians. 1/

Of those Hawaiians who have married outside their subgroup, 20% of the women are married to white men and 20% of the women are married to Pilipino men. Among the Hawaiian men who have married outside their subgroup, a little under a half (46%) are married to white women and another 12% are married to Japanese women.

Because of the high rate of interracial marriage, it becomes questionable that the native Hawaiian population will remain a separate and distinct race for many more generations. Since, as an ethnic group, they are native to the Islands, the ethnic stock will not be increased by immigration from elsewhere as in other Asian American groups. Instead, if current trends continue, Hawaiians will be a less distinct identifiable subgroup and will be totally assimilated with the many other ethnic/racial subgroups that comprise the state's heterogenous population.

1/ Data on interracial marriage in Hawaii from U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: Marital Status, PC(2)-4C, Table 13.

ASIAN AMERICAN GLOSSARY

Asian Americans - The various designations for Asian Americans are used in this report as follows:

Japanese - Includes persons who indicated their race on Census forms or to Census enumerators as Japanese, as well as persons who indicated such terms as Japanese-American, Nipponese, or Oriental.

Chinese - Includes persons who indicated their race as Chinese, as well as persons who used such terms as Chinese-American or Mongolian.

Pilipino - Utilized by Urban Associates in this report to designate persons whose origins are the Philippine Islands. The term has been adopted in Pilipino-American communities, because it more closely approximates the word in native Pilipino languages. Includes persons who indicated their race using such terms as "Filipino" and "Filipino-American."

Hawaiians - In the 1960 Census, "Hawaiian" and "Part Hawaiian" were included as separate categories under race. In the 1970 Census, persons of mixed descent were asked to enter the race with which they identified. A person in doubt about his/her racial classification was categorized according to the father's race.

Koreans - Includes persons in the 49 states, excluding Alaska, and in the District of Columbia who indicated their race as Korean. Koreans in Alaska are included in the "All other races" category.

Born in a Different State - see Nativity

Chinese - see Asian Americans

Note: Except where noted, these definitions are based on those used by the U. S. Bureau of the Census.

Employment - see Labor Force Participation

Ethnicity/Race: In 1970, Census obtained information on ethnicity/race primarily through self-classification by people according to the ethnicity race with which they identified themselves. For persons of mixed parentage who were in doubt as to their classification, the ethnicity race of the person's father was used.

> Group - In most cases the term used to identify broader categories of ethnic minority populations, such as Asian Americans. Persons of different cultural and national origins are grouped into these broader categories because they share certain common traits in terms of language, continent of origin, community, history, and/or interests.
>
> Subgroup - Term used to identify persons of specific cultural, national, or tribal origins under each of the above groups. Examples include Japanese, and Koreans.
>
> To some extent the terms "group" and "subgroup" have been used interchangeably in the text.

Extended Family - see Family

Family - Consists of a household with a household head and one or more other persons living in the same household who are related. (cf. Household.)

> Female-Headed Family - A family in which a female is reported as head by its members. (However, if the husband is present, he is still considered the head by Census.)
>
> Nuclear Family - A family group containing no more than a father, mother, and one or more children.

Extended Family - A family group that contains relatives beyond the nuclear family unit, such as parents, grandchildren, or siblings of the family head, etc.

Subfamily - A married couple with or without children, or one parent with one or more single children under 18 years old, living in a household and related to, but not including, the head of the household or his wife. Members of a subfamily are also included among the members of a family. The number of subfamilies, therefore, is not included in the number of families.

Female-Headed Family - see Family

Foreign Born - see Nativity

Group - see Ethnicity/Race

Hawaiian - see Asian Americans

Household - One or more persons who occupy a group of rooms or a single room that constitutes a housing unit. (cf. Family)

Head of Household - One person in each household is designated as the head. (cf. Family (Female-Headed Family))

Primary Individual - A household head living alone or with nonrelatives only.

Unrelated Individual - One of the following: a household head living alone or with nonrelatives only, a household member who is not related to the head, or a person living in a group situation who is not an inmate of an institution. (Unrelated Individuals who are household heads are Primary Individuals.)

Income - The sum of amounts received as wages or salary before deductions; self-employment income (gross receipts minus operating expenses) from business, farm or professional enterprise; and income other than earnings (interest, dividends, pensions, Social Security, public assistance, etc.)

Intermarriage - Marriage between persons of different ethnic/racial groups.

Japanese - see Asian Americans

Koreans - see Asian Americans

Labor Force Participation - Labor force participants are those persons, 16 years old and over, who reported that during the week prior to the census count they were employed, or were not employed but were seeking employment (also includes members of the Armed Forces).

Employed - Employed persons comprise all civilians, 16 years old or over: who have paid jobs, who have their own business, profession, or farm, or who have a job working 15 or more hours as unpaid workers in a family farm or business. Excluded from the employed are persons whose only activity consists of work around the house or volunteer work.

Unemployed - Persons are classified as unemployed if they are civilians, 16 years old and over, and are without a job during the reference week, but have been looking for work in the past four weeks and are available to accept a job.

Not in Labor Force - All persons 16 years old and over who are not classified as members of the labor force (employed or seeking employment) are defined as "not in labor force." Examples include students, housewives, retired workers, seasonal workers enumerated in an "off" season who are not looking for work, inmates of institutions, and disabled persons.

Married, Husband Absent - Includes both women living a part from their spouses because of marital discord and also those whose usual place of residence is different from that of their spouse for other reasons.

Mean - see Median

Median - The middle value in a distribution, i. e.; the median divides the distribution into two equal parts. One-half of the cases falls below the median and one-half exceeds the median. Where possible, we analyzed the median in preference to mean value (average of a set of values), because the latter is strongly influenced by extremes in the distribution. The median, which is not affected by extreme values is,therefore, a better measure than the mean when the population base is small.

Mother Tongue - Defined by the U. S. Bureau of the Census as the language spoken in the person's home when he was a child. Obviously, this is not necessarily the tongue of the mother country, but rather the language an individual spoke to his parents. The Mother Tongue is not necessarily the language spoken in the home now.

Native Born - see Nativity

Nativity - Various identifiers used by U. S. Bureau of the Census to categorize relevant circumstances of an individual's birth are:

> Native Born - Persons born in the United States or its outlying areas, or born in foreign countries or at sea to parents of U. S. citizenship.
>
> Foreign Born - Persons born in a country other than the U. S.
>
> Born in a Different State - Persons born in the U. S. (Native Born) are classified according to their state of birth (based on mother's state of residence, rather than location of actual birth, e.g., hospital). If the person now resides in a different state than that of his birth (residence implying where he lives most of the time), he is designated as Born in a Different State. Data on persons Born in a Different State are taken as a percentage of the sum of all persons who reported they were born in the same state and those who reported they were born in a different state; but not as a percentage of all native-born persons, because the latter include persons who either did not report the state of their birth or were born at sea.

Nuclear Family - see Family

Occupations - The system of classification of occupations developed for the 1970 Census consists of 441 specific occupational categories, arranged into 12 occupational groups. For purposes of the present analysis, the groups were reduced to nine ("Transportation Operatives" was combined with "Other Operatives," "Farm Laborers" was combined with "Farmers and Farm Managers," and "Private Household Workers" was combined with "Other Service Workers") and these nine were arranged into two major categories, "White-Collar Occupations" and "Blue-Collar Occupations." In the case of blue-collar occupations, the Census classification system differs from the U. S. Department of Labor's Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Examples of specific occupations under each of the nine categories listed in this report are:

1. White-Collar Occupations

   a. High Status

      - Professional & Technical Workers: Engineers, Lawyers, Scientists, Physicians, Teachers, Journalists, Writers, Health Technicians, Registered Nurses, Social Workers etc.

      - Managers and Administors: Buyers, Sales Managers, Public Administrators, Health Administrators, Restaurant Managers, Office Managers, School Administrators, persons self-employed in own incorporated businesses, etc.

   b. Low Status

      - Sales Workers: Salesmen, Sales Clerks, Brokers, etc.

      - Clerical Workers: Bookkeepers, Cashiers, Secretaries, Bank Tellers, Key Punch Operators, Telephone Operators, Teacher's Aides, Mail Carriers, Library Attendants, etc.

2. Blue Collar Occupations:

a. High Status

- Craftsmen, Foremen and Kindred Workers: Carpenters, Plumbers, Electricians, Mechanics, Machinists, Construction Workers, Printers, Repairmen, etc.

b. Low Status

- Operatives: Assemblers, Filers, Polishers, Sanders and Buffers, Dressmakers and Seamstresses, Packers and Wrappers, Sewers and Stitchers, Graders and Sorters, Deliverymen, Bus Drivers, Truck Drivers.

- Laborers, Except Farm: Construction Laborers; Freight, Stock, and Material Handlers; Fishermen; Gardeners; Longshoremen.

- Service Workers: Maids, Janitors, Waiters, Dishwashers, Nursing Aides, Porters Hairdressers, Porters, Policemen, etc.

- Farm-Related Occupations: Farmers and Farm Managers, Farm Workers, etc.

Pilipino - see Asian Americans.

Poverty - Families and unrelated individuals are classified as being above or below the poverty level according to a poverty index adopted by a Federal Interagency Committee in 1969. This index provides a range of income cutoffs or "poverty thresholds," adjusted to take into account such factors as family size, sex and age of the family head, number of children, and farm/nonfarm residence. These income cutoffs are updated every year to reflect the changes in the Consumer Price Index. In 1969, the average poverty threshold for a nonfarm family of four was $3,743. The population covered in the poverty statistics excludes inmates of institutions, members of the Armed Forces living in barracks, college students living in dormitories, and unrelated individuals under 14 years old. In the tables that accompany this report, the following subheads are used under the poverty reading:

% Female-Headed Families in Poverty - Of all families with female heads, the percent whose total family income fell below the poverty level in 1969.

Poverty Families, % Female-Headed - Of all the families whose incomes fell below the poverty level in 1969, the percent which had a woman as its head.

Primary Individual - see Household.

Race - see Ethnicity/Race.

Region - The term, as used in this report, may have one of two meanings: (1) The ten Standard Federal Regions of the United States, as recognized by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and certain other federal agencies; and (2) The four Census Regions into which the U. S. Bureau of the Census divides the country--West, South, North Central, and Northeast.

Rural - The population not classified as urban constitutes the rural population. (cf. Urban)

Sample Size - The Census statistics presented in this report are based on a sample of the population. The sizes of the samples vary: data from the PC(1)-C series, General Social and Economic Characteristics, and the PC(1)-D series, Detailed Characteristics, were derived from 20%, 15%, and 5% samples depending on the subject matter. Most of the data on Asian Americans were based on a 20% sample. Certain pieces of data by nativity were based on a 15% sample. Readers are advised to refer to the individual Census publications for details.

Schooling - The following terms are used:

Years of School Completed - Except for high school graduates, based on the highest grade of school completed. Persons who attended a foreign school system or were tutored are asked to report the approximate equivalent grade in a standard U.S. school system.

High School Graduates - Includes all persons who have completed high school, whether or not they have had additional schooling.

School Enrollment - Persons were included as enrolled in school for the 1970 Census if they reported attending a "regular" school or college at any time between February 1, 1970 and the time of enumeration. Regular schooling is that which may advance a person toward an elementary school certificate, or high school diploma, or college, university, or professional degree. Persons were included as enrolled in nursery school only if the school included instruction as an important and integral phase of its program. Schooling generally regarded as not regular includes that given in nursery schools that simply provide custodian care; specialized vocational, trade and business schools; on-the-job training; and correspondence courses.

SMSA - See Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) - A county or group of counties (towns and cities in New England) containing at least one city of 50,000 inhabitants or more, or "twin cities" with a combined population of at least 50,000 and the labor market area surrounding that city or cities. In 1970, the Bureau of the Census recognized 243 SMSA's in the United States. (For a detailed description of the criteria used to define SMSA's, see U. S. Bureau of the Budget, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas: 1967, GPO, Washington, D.C.)

Subfamily - see Family.

Subgroup - see Ethnicity/Race.

Unemployed - see Labor Force Participation.

Unrelated Individual - see Household.

Urban - Designates all persons living in incorporated or unincorporated areas of 2,500 inhabitants or more, excluding persons living in the rural portions of extended cities. Also designates other territories included in urbanized areas. (A fuller definition appears in the Census PC(1)-A reports.)

Sources on Asian Americans

U. S. Bureau of the Census,

1970 Census of Population:

Subject Reports: Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States PC(2)-1G. (also contains data on Koreans and Hawaiians)

Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-1A (Data primarily on first and second generation persons of Japanese and Chinese Origin.

General Population Characteristics, PC(1)-B Series, U. S. Summary and by individual states (Contains a total population count for Japanese, Chinese and Pilipinos by state and county)

Detailed Characteristics PC(1)-D Series, U. S. Summary and by individual states (Number of Japanese, Chinese, Pilipinos and Koreans by sex, age, and nativity also mother tongue for Japanese and Chinese)

Subject Reports: Low Income Areas PC(2)-9B, (Number and Percent of Japanese, Chinese and Pilipinos in poverty in 50 major cities.)

Subject Reports: Family Composition, PC(2)-4A

Subject Reports: Marital Status, PC(2)-4C

"Operation Leap" Tabulations (Unpublished), (Special Tabulations of 1970 Census data generated by the U. S. Bureau of the Census for the U. S. Office of Economic Opportunity. Data for metropolitan areas in California have been run separately on Japanese, Chinese, and Pilipinos. Data on non-whites and non-Blacks in one low income neighborhood in New York City is 98% Chinese.)

1960 Census of Population:

Subject Reports: Nonwhite Population by Race PC(2)-1C (Social and economic statistics for Japanese, Chinese and Pilipinos)

U. S. Department of Justice,

Immigration and Naturalization Service:

Annual Reports (by year) 1960-1973.

END

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